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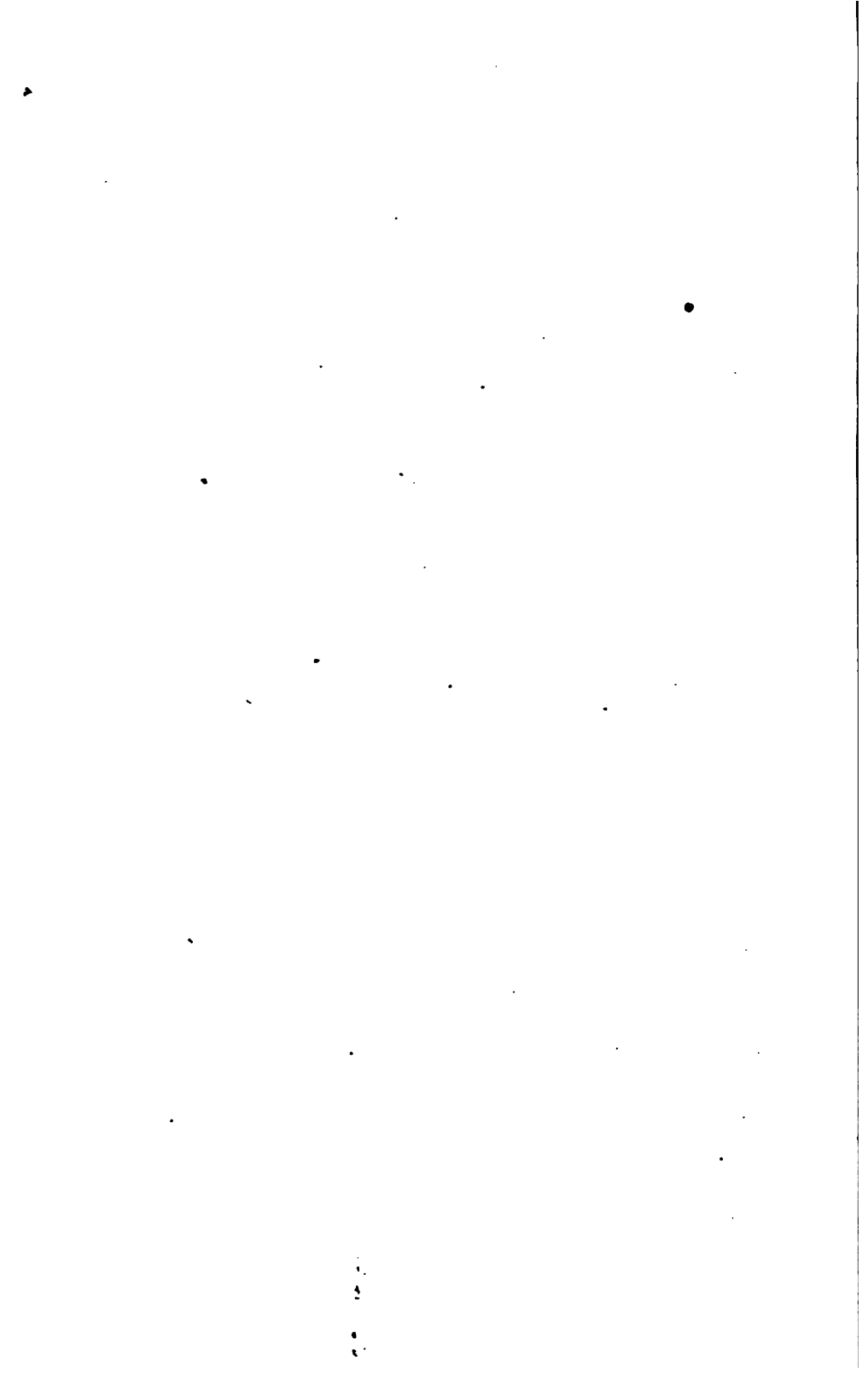
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Parallel History:

BEING

AN OUTLINE

OF THE

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY
OF THE WORLD,

CONTEMPORANEOUSLY ARRANGED.

BY

PHILIP ALEXANDER PRINCE, Esq.

The Second Edition.

IN THREE VOLUMES.

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OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

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WHO WRITES A HISTORY, HIS PRINCIPAL AIM SHOULD BE TRUTH, AND TO RELATE ESPECIALLY THE EXTRAORDINARIES BOTH OF GOOD AND ILL: OF GOOD, THAT MEN, TAKEN WITH THE HONOUR DONE THEM IN STORY, MAY BE ENCOURAGED TO PERFORM THE LIKE; OF ILL, THAT WHEN MEN SEE THE INFAMY THAT THEY ARE BRANDED WITH, THEY MAY LEAP FROM ALL THAT SHOULD MAKE THEM SO STIGMATIZED.—OWEN FELLTHAM.

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MODERN HISTORY.

PERIOD THE ELEVENTH.

FROM THE CLOSE OF THE CIVIL WAR OF THE ROSES TO THE OVERTHROW OF THE ENGLISH MONARCHY.

1485 TO 1649—164 YEARS.

REIGN CLIX.

HENRY VII., KING OF ENGLAND.

FIRST OF THE FAMILY OF TUDOR, OR UNITED HOUSE OF YORK AND LANCASTER.

1485 TO 1509—24 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Henry's claim to the crown was his descent from John of Gaunt; but it was a highly defective one, since he came from the issue of that prince's illegitimate family. John Beaufort, earl of Somerset, was natural son of John of Gaunt by Catherine Swinford; his son, John Beaufort, was the first duke of Somerset, and had a daughter Margaret, who married Edmund Tudor, earl of Richmond, Henry VII.'s father, son of Sir Owen Tudor, by Katharine, widow of Henry V., and daughter of Charles VI. of France. Henry VII. was born at Pembroke 1457, and was in person tall, slender, and well-shapen; of a grave aspect, and saturnine complexion. He inherited a natural fund of sagacity, which study and experience materially improved; and was remarkable for coolness and presence of mind when surrounded by difficulty and danger. His leading vice was avarice: yet was he a wise legislator, temperate in habits, and attentive to religious duties. His master-passions were the fear of deposition, and the love of wealth. Urged by the former, he put the earl of Warwick to death, lest he should avail himself of his superior claim to the crown; and actuated by the latter, numerous indeed were the mean and unjust actions of which he was guilty. In entering upon a war, he always stipulated with his allies that they should bear the cost, or obtained a larger subsidy than was needful from the parliament, or a tax from his people. His ministers, Empson and Dudley, were noted for their ingenuity in raising supplies: not an offence, real or alleged,

but was compensated by a fine. Personally on one occasion, Henry, after having enjoyed the splendid hospitality of the earl of Oxford, accused his noble host of keeping more servants, in the shape of retainers, than the law allowed, and scrupled not to fine him accordingly 15,000 merks. But something like remorse for these tyrannical modes of raising money seized him at the close of life; and he ordered large sums to be distributed among the poor, hospitals to be founded, and restitution to be made wherever wrong had been done. Though himself extremely unamiable as a man, and rapacious and oppressive as a sovereign, the reign of Henry VII. was, upon the whole, beneficial to his country. Being conducted upon pacific principles, it put a period to many disorders, and gave an opportunity to the nation to flourish by its internal resources. His policy of depressing the feudal nobility, which proportionably exalted the middle ranks, was also highly salutary; and it was especially advanced by the statute which allowed the breaking of entails, and the alienation of landed estates. Many other beneficial arrangements also date from this reign, which, however, was very arbitrary; and the power lost by the aristocracy, for a time gave an undue preponderance to that of the crown. In the reign of Henry VII., indeed, chiefly originated that almost idolatrous notion of prerogative, which was more or less entertained by English sovereigns, until finally adjusted by the revolution of 1688. Henry married Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., by whom he had seven children. Those who lived to maturity were four: *Margaret*, married first James IV. king of Scotland, then Archibald earl of Angus, and thirdly, lord Methvin; *Arthur*, who married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, but soon after died; *Henry VIII.*; *Mary*, married first Louis XII. of France, and then Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk. From this last marriage descended lady Jane Grey; and from the union of Margaret with the earl of Angus descended lady Arabella Stuart, both eventually claimants of the throne. From the marriage of the same Margaret with James IV. of Scotland, descended, in a direct line, James I. of England.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—'Long live King Henry the Seventh!' resounded from all parts of the battle-field, when it was found that Richard had fallen. Whether Richmond's claim were defective or not, was not now questioned; and the earl, adopting the high distinction so spontaneously awarded him, proceeded by easy marches to London, which he entered in a close coach, to the surprise and disappointment of the crowds awaiting his arrival. His claim being at once acknowledged by the parliament, he was crowned in a few days after (being in his 29th year), and in the next year espoused the princess Elizabeth, to the great satisfaction of the nation. Henry, however, was of a jealous temper; and loving his own family of Lancaster better than his wife's, he regarded this joy of the people as a proof of their preference for the rival house of York, and was never very cordial with his queen.

Henry's first proceeding was a progress through the kingdom, wherein he awed many insurgent parties, and executed Sir Humphrey Stafford, a factious leader; and he had scarcely reached London on his return, when he received intelligence of an insurrection in Ireland, under one calling himself earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence who had been drowned in the Tower. The king had no difficulty in proving the Irish claimant a cheat, since, having the real earl of Warwick in custody in the Tower (in detaining whom he had unjustly followed the wicked policy of Richard III.), he paraded that unhappy prince on horseback through the streets of London, to undeceive the populace; and he sent the queen-dowager, who was supposed to have aided in the trick, to the nunnery of Bermondsey, and seized her lands and

revenue. When the impostor landed in Lancashire with an army of German veterans, supplied by Margaret, widow of Charles the Bold, Henry met him at Stoke, in Nottinghamshire, and having routed his forces, took him prisoner. The pretended earl was a baker's son, named Lambert Simnel, whom a priest of Oxford, one Simon, had tutored to undertake the task of deception. Simon, being in holy orders, was imprisoned for life, instead of being summarily put to death; and Simnel, who was found to be a weak-minded youth, was made a scullion, and afterwards a falconer, in the royal service. To divert the nation from the question of his title, Henry, having allowed the queen to be solemnly crowned, sent troops under lord Brooke to assist the duke of Brittany (at whose court he had been brought up) in his contest with Charles VIII. of France; but when the dispute had been terminated by the marriage of Charles with the young duchess, he landed at Calais, 1492, with 30,000 men, and claimed the crown of France as his hereditary right. Charles was weak enough to purchase the independence of his kingdom for 40,000*l.* of our present money, and a yearly pension of 25,000 crowns; and Henry, having thus satisfied his avarice, speedily withdrew his troops.

A new domestic calamity befel the king in 1492. The duchess of Burgundy, who had warmly supported the imposture of Simnel, publicly stated her conviction that her nephew, the duke of York (the prince murdered with his brother Edward V.) was still alive; and secretly thereupon sent Perkin, the son of Warbec, a renegade Jew, into Ireland, who was received as the true Richard Plantagenet, by the unanimous voice of the credulous people of that island. When Henry soon after saw the king of France give colour to this second imposture by entertaining young Warbec at Paris, and the duchess of Burgundy by honouring him with the romantic title of her *white rose*, he made Tyrrel and Dighton, who had been present at the murder of the princes, prove that fact to the world; and executed Sir William Stanley, as being the chief English agent in the plot. He also forced James IV. of Scotland to drive the impostor from his court, where he had married the king's relative, lady Catherine Gordon, and headed a Scottish irruption into Northumberland, 1497; and when at length the pretender appeared in arms in Cornwall, with the title of Richard IV., he came upon him while laying siege to Exeter, seized him at Beaulieu, and conducted him in mock triumph to London, where, after being some time imprisoned in the Tower, he was executed, together with the much injured Edward earl of Warwick, 1499, for planning the escape of himself and that innocent prince. Warwick was the last legitimate male heir of the house of Plantagenet, and had been 15 years in the Tower as a prisoner, simply on account of the jealousy of Richard and Henry. At length firmly seated on the throne, Henry gained a high character for wisdom; and among the princes who sought his friendship and alliance was Ferdinand of Aragon, a ruler in crafty and cautious policy very much like himself. After a long negotiation, Henry brought about a match between the infanta Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand, and his eldest son Arthur; and on the death of the latter, in order to retain the dowry of the princess, he caused his remaining son Henry to marry her, by papal dispensation—an event which, in the sequel, produced the Reformation in England. His eldest daughter he married to James IV. of Scotland, with a cautious eye to the union of sovereignty that might arise therefrom. In the midst of such labours to advance his family, he abated not his favourite pursuit of money-making; employing two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, who, by penal statutes, and all sorts of extortion and chicanery, levied fines upon the subject in all directions, in order that their royal master, with insatiable avarice and meanness, might profit by their rapacity. Henry, however, made some good use

of this treasure, by the advance of sums of money to merchants, without interest, in order to enable them to carry on lucrative enterprises, and promote an extension of commerce. It was owing merely to accident that Columbus did not engage in his service, instead of that of Ferdinand; for he had sent him an invitation to his court, which the capture of his brother by pirates prevented from arriving in time. He then employed Sebastian Cabot, who, under his auspices, discovered Newfoundland, and part of the American continent.

Henry's remaining days were spent in the suppression of rebellions against his authority, in one of which Sir James Tyrrel, the infamous director of the Tower murders, fell a sacrifice; and his health at length sank under a consumptive disorder, which terminated his existence at his favourite palace of Richmond, in the 53rd year of his age, April 22, 1509. His remains were deposited in the beautiful chapel he had built in Westminster Abbey; where his tomb is yet to be seen, surrounded by a magnificent screen of basaltic stone.

EVENTS.

FIFTEENTH CENTURY OF THE CHURCH (1401—1500).—The spread of Wicliff's opinions entirely occupied the attention of the Church at the commencement of this century; Sawtre being the first English martyr for the same, and Huss and Jerome of Prague suffering soon after on the continent for their adherence to the Lollard doctrines. The western schism came to an end, 1429; and Rome has ever since been the seat of the popes. Metaphysical disputations were common; and fruitless contests took place between the peripatetics and platonists concerning the nature and powers of mind. The conquest of Constantinople by the Turks fully established the faith of Mohammed in a large and beautiful portion of Europe; but in other respects the Church was, during the latter portion of the century, in the enjoyment of a long tranquillity—the ominous precursor of a century of commotion, whose effects have not yet ceased to operate upon and influence the social state of Christendom.

Two PLAGUES occurred in this reign; the one the *Sweating-sickness*, 1485, wherein persons died through exhaustion by extreme perspiration, and which, though it lasted but a month, carried off 20,000 persons in London. The affection is presumed to have been, not idiopathic, or a primary disorder, but the symptom of

some prevalent fever of the hectic kind, which terminated life by colliquative sweats. The other was a plague like those of the East, 1500, and it proved fatal to 30,000 in London.

THREE REBELLIONS happened in England in this reign: those of Lambert Simnel and Perkin Warbec have been described; the third occurred at Bodmin in Cornwall, where Flam-mock, a lawyer, and Joseph, a farrier, incited the populace to oppose the tax levied by Henry, when the Scots made an irruption into Northumberland with Perkin, 1497. They even marched towards London with 16,000 men, and posted themselves advantageously on Blackheath, believing that the Kentish men, whose boast was that they had never been conquered, even by the Normans, would support their cause. Although discontent everywhere prevailed, the rebels found no aid; and the king's troops, under lord Daubeney, having driven their advanced posts from Deptford Bridge, up the hill, attacked the large force assembled on the heath. The rebels, though unprovided with cavalry and artillery, fought valiantly, and even took Daubeney prisoner; but his troops released him, and after some further resistance, the insurgents were broken and put to flight. Flam-mock and Joseph, together with lord Audley, who had joined them,

were captured, and all three executed; but Henry ordered all the other prisoners to be released.

ORIGIN OF ENGLISH STANDING ARMIES.—It had been long the practice of the wealthy to provide liveries and badges for occasional servants, on whom their employers could call for support in their feuds and insurrections. As brawls, both private and public, were grievously increased under this system, and as moreover an army could easily be raised from such characters, to the injury of the king's peace, Henry not only laboured to abolish retainers, but made his first attempt at raising a paid standing army 1486; instituting the yeomen of the guard, a corps of 50 soldiers, whose duty it was to attend upon the royal person. As the troop also waited on the king at meals, giving forth the dishes from the buffet or sideboard, its members received the name of *buffetiers*, now corrupted into *beefeaters*, whose habit is still to be seen in the dress of the warders at the respective fortresses of the kingdom.

THE STAR-CHAMBER was remodelled 1487, by Henry VII. It was a court of ancient origin, and consisted of certain lay and spiritual lords, and two judges of the courts of common law, who had power together to decide upon the punishment due to riots, perjuries, and misbehaviour of sheriffs; and at length, to grant monopolies, to issue proclamations at variance with the laws of the land, and to fine, imprison, and corporally punish such as questioned their proceedings: all without a jury. The oppression occasioned by so absolute a tribunal caused its abolition, to the great joy of the nation, by Charles I. The court derived its name from the *Shtars* (Hebrew, *shetar*, covenant), or ancient contracts concerning money and privileges, between the Jews and English kings; these having been kept in a part of the building where it was held.

REFORM OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS.—These self-elected bodies of men, which rule all matters in the re-

spective cities of the kingdom, and, with a mayor at their head, form a sort of *imperium in imperio*, were restrained in their powers by Henry VII.; so that no by-laws could be passed by them without the consent of three chief officers of state. It is evident that independent municipal bodies are beneficial; and that any course which would tend to destroy or even diminish their activity, would be reprehensible. The internal quiet of England has for centuries been attributable to the admirable working of these institutions. Forming as they do a middle security between toil and wealth, the poorest artisan may become, by a course of industry and good conduct, the chief magistrate of his native city; and chosen, as he must have been, by those who were judges of his worth, he will possess the confidence and respect of its inhabitants. Should the ruling party in the state, (that is, the government,) be constituted the sole receptacle of municipal authority, the great consequent evils to be feared would be popular elections, and the advancement of men unqualified by general worth to hold the posts of honour.

DISCOVERY EXPEDITIONS.—In 1484 Martin Behem, in the service of John II. of Portugal, discovered Brazil, and sailed to the Straits of Magellan, which he accurately described in a chart printed 1486. The discovery of the passage by Magellan is dated 1519. Diaz, also employed by John II., discovered the Cape of Good Hope 1486; but did not double it, on account of the storms which prevailed, and which occasioned him to name it Cabo Tormentoso. Sebastian Cabot, for Henry VII., and Amerigo Vespucci, for Ferdinand of Spain, were the first Europeans to land on the American continent, and therefore to discover it, 1497; and in 1498, the great Columbus, in the service of Ferdinand, was the next to set foot thereon. The passage to India round the Cape was first prosecuted by Vasco di Gama for Emanuel of Portugal, 1497, and followed up by Al-

buquerque; when the islands of Madagascar, Ceylon, and St. Helena were discovered. As wealth soon flowed from so many sources into the Peninsula, it became at length the emporium of the precious metals; and that luxury was induced which, in process of time, lowered the power and dignity of both its states.

AGRICULTURE IN ENGLAND, properly so called, originated with 'The Book of Husbandry' of Fitzherbert, a judge of the Common Pleas, 1504; but it still languished until the time of the Commonwealth, when Sir Hugh Platt brought into use a great variety of manures for recovering exhausted soils, and fertilizing barren ones. Soon after the Restoration, Evelyn and Tull greatly encouraged agriculture by their writings; and in the reign of George III., Sir John Sinclair established a Board of Agriculture, which has admirably answered the intention. As respects *Horticulture*, the English borrowed their taste, in the first instance, from the Dutch. Previously to 1500, every species of *vegetable*, and most of the common outdoor *fruits*, were imported from the Low Countries by our merchants; but about that time the markets were first abundantly supplied from our own fields and gardens. As respects *flowers*, which at the same juncture began to interest the English, they appear to us, if it were alone on the apparently superfluous ground of their beauty, to claim an admiration at least equal to our regard for their more useful brethren of the soil. Paley has observed, that every man finds for himself one especial arrangement of Providence, which, more than any other, satisfies his mind respecting the benevolence of the Deity: and he affirms the power which a healthy child possesses of amusing itself, to be the most convincing proof to himself. We should adduce the beauty, scent, and variety of flowers. Undoubtedly, Paley's ground, and countless others, afford sufficient arguments in support of the same principle; but as his instance is equally applicable to the

young of brutes, as well as of men, we still prefer the example of flowers. Beasts have nothing to do with the latter, save to devour them; they admire neither their structure, their lustre, nor their scent; but man sees in them that which assures him his present abode was not intended, even fallen as he is, to be a place of gloom. For him, and for him alone, were the curious and diversified forms, the magnificent colours, the delicate pencillings, the odoriferous perfumes devised: for (says the poetic quakeress)

"We might have had enough, enough
For ev'ry want of our's—
For luxury, medicine, and toil—
And yet have had no flowers."

ALGEBRAIC SYMBOLS first used at Venice, 1494, by Luca di Borga, a Minorite friar; whereby known or unknown quantities are marked. Whether the friar invented this mode of notation, or copied it from Eastern mathematicians, is unknown.

ST. PETER'S CATHEDRAL at Rome was commenced 1506 by Pope Julius I. Bramante first superintended the splendid work; but Michael Angelo gave the edifice the peculiarly sublime character it possesses. Though constantly advancing, with all the means that the wealth of the hierarchy could then command, it took the reigns of eighteen popes, and the period of 115 years, to see *the temple alone* finished. It occupies, with its vestibules and accessories, a third of a mile of ground; and its extreme height, to the apex of the cross, is 464 feet, or 60 feet higher than our St. Paul's. From the admirable attention of the builders to preserve the relative proportions of all the parts, the edifice does not strike the visiter with its size on entrance; but by degrees it unfolds its magnitude to his wondering sight. The figures of the Evangelists, which decorate the inside of the cupola, do not appear to be larger than the life; yet the pen in St. Mark's hand is six feet long, from which one may calculate their real stature. In a word,

all is gigantic and cyclopean in the fane. But beyond its grandeur of extension, as regards both the structure and its contents, the extreme cleanliness of every portion, whether it be the walls, the pillars, the statues, the dome and roofs, or even the pavement on which he treads, seize the stranger with amazement; and, on enquiry, he finds that some hundreds of penitents are constantly engaged in the work of removing every particle of dust and soil of hand and foot from the place—such being the full penance of the labourers. Immediately under the glorious cupola is the tomb of St. Peter, round which an hundred silver lamps are constantly kept burning; and underneath that, in the old church of Constantine, on which St. Peter's is built, lie the remains of the great Apostle himself.

ABERDEEN UNIVERSITY founded by king James IV., 1494, in Old Aberdeen. It possesses a library of 13,000 volumes, and has 134 bursaries, or exhibitions for the support of students, varying from 5*l.* to 50*l.* per annum. The number of students is about 250. (*See Marischal College.*)

CHIAROSCURO invented by Leonardo da Vinci; though that can hardly be called an invention which consists in an accurate representation of natural objects by the pencil. *Chiaro*, light, and *oscuro*, dark, are Italian words, and the compound term is used to signify that *effect* produced in painting by the judicious contrast or combination of light and shade. No rule can be laid down for it, as it depends on the accuracy of the artist's eye and taste: but Leonardo's careful plan made Coreggio and Titian draw something like a rule therefrom for their excellencies; while the beauties of Rubens and Rembrandt are the result of an undeviating attention to the same principle.

RISE OF THE SIKHS.—Nanak, a Hindu prince, son of the ruler of Talwandi, a small district in the province of Lahore, began to preach against both the idolatry of his na-

tion and the Islam, 1494. 'I am sent,' he said to the Mohammedans, 'to reconcile your jarring tenets; and I implore you to read the Hindu scriptures, as well as the Koran; but reading is useless, without obedience to the doctrine taught. God has said no man shall be saved except he has performed good works. The Almighty will not ask to what tribe or persuasion he belongs: he will only ask what he has done.' Nanak now, to free himself from the cares of the world, left his wife and children, and retired to Bavy, 80 miles north of Lahore, where he died, greatly respected, aged 70, 1539. He had gained many proselytes, and his opinions continued to spread in peace for nearly two centuries; till in 1702 the increase of the sect he had originated, called the *Sikhs* (*deists*, in opposition to idol worshippers,) excited the jealousy of the Mohammedan government of Delhi; and from that time the disciples of Nanak became an armed people. The Sikhs worship one God, without image, or mediator. They eat all kinds of meat except beef, sparing the black cattle on account of their utility; and they especially enjoin the use of pork, out of sheer opposition to the Moslems, who in that and many other observances, strictly follow Judaism. The Sikhs dress in blue, even to their turbans, a colour thought unlucky by the other Hindus. The doctrines of Nanak were taught by his favourite disciple and high-priest Anjud Lhina, who collected them in a work called, in imitation of the Bible and Koran, *Pothi*, 'the book.' Anjud, at his death, named for his successor in the priesthood another disciple, called Amerdus; and this method of continuing the sect seems to have been practised till the union of the pontifical character with the kingly in the person of Runjeet Singh, 1798. (*See Govind Singh.*)

RISE OF THE MORAVIANS.—The Hussites having split into various parties, some again joined the Church; but others, forming themselves into a

fraternity called 'The United Brethren,' and maintaining the Wicliff notions, settled chiefly in Moravia, 1500. After various migrations, their descendants were admitted, 1722, by count Zinzendorf upon his estate in Upper Lusatia; where they acquired

the name of Herrnhuters, from Herrnhut, that of a neighbouring hill. The sect gradually increased; and parties of them are still found in Holstein, Switzerland, England, Ireland, Russia, and Pennsylvania, their total amount being about 18,000.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

THE POPEDOM.—ALEXANDER VI. succeeded Innocent VIII. 1492, being Rodriguez Borgia, of a wealthy family of Valentia, in Spain. He had been made a cardinal by his uncle Calixtus III.; and at the time of his election had four natural children, whom he scrupled not to advance to riches and honours. His most noted son was Cesare, first a cardinal, and afterwards made duke of Valentinois in Dauphiny by king Louis XII.; on which account he was styled 'le duc Valentine,' a name which he rendered infamous by his atrocities. The politics of Alexander were capricious and faithless in the extreme. At first he was hostile to the house of Aragon, then reigning at Naples, and showed himself favourable to the French, who were attempting to invade Naples; but afterwards, his son having married a daughter of Alfonso II. of Naples, he allied himself with the latter against the invaders. When, however, Charles VIII. advanced with his army upon Rome, he received him with honour, promised him his support for the conquest of Naples, and even gave him his son cardinal Cesare as a hostage. But the cardinal found means to escape; and Alexander joined that league formed in the north by the Venetians and Sforza against the French, which led to the expulsion of the latter. He now allied himself to Louis XII., successor of Charles VIII., who wanted his sanction for divorcing his first wife; and was a party to the double treachery by which Ferdinand of Spain first betrayed the cause of his relative, Frederick of Naples—partitioning that kingdom between Louis XII. and himself, and then, breaking his en-

agement with the French, seizing upon the whole of the conquest by means of his general, Gonzalo. His internal policy was even more perfidious. Having meditated the depression of the great Roman families of Colonna, Orsini, and Savelli, he, either by treachery or open violence, succeeded in putting to death most of them, and seized on their extensive possessions. He sent into the Romagna his son, duke Valentine, who, by means of similar practices, made himself master of that country, entrapping and strangling the independent lords and petty despots of the various towns. Soon after the murder of his eldest son, John duke of Gandia, by unknown assassins, when returning from a debauch, Alexander died, aged 74, 1503. He was followed by Pius III., Francesco Todeschini, son of the sister of Paul II.; and great expectations were entertained that he would reform the papal court after the blackest reign in its annals. He survived his election, however, only 27 days, and was succeeded by the famous JULIUS II., cardinal Della Rovere, nephew of Sixtus IV. He had long distinguished himself by his haughty temper and warlike disposition; and upon being elected, began by driving Cesare Borgia out of his ill-gotten possessions in the Romagna. But there he found another power, the Venetians; who, during the preceding troubles, had taken possession of Ravenna, Rimini, and other places. They offered to pay tribute to the see of Rome for those territories; but Julius refused, and demanded their restoration to the Church. After fruitless negotiations, Julius in 1508 made a league (that of Cambrai) with

Louis XII., the emperor Maximilian, and the duke of Ferrara, against Venice, whose object was the destruction of the oligarchy. Venice, however, stood firm, though its territories were ravaged by both Germans and French with their usual atrocity; and at last Julius, perceiving the impolicy of uniting with ultramontane sovereigns against the oldest Italian state, made peace with the oligarchy, 1510. Wishing to undo the mischief he had done, he called to his aid the Swiss, and himself took the field against the French in Lombardy, and captured the town of La Miranda, 1511. He thereupon united with Ferdinand of Spain, Henry of England, the Venetians, and the Swiss; and his campaign of 1512 was marked by the battle of Ravenna, and the death of Gaston de Foix, the French commander, followed by the total expulsion of the French from Lombardy. The Swiss and Spanish allies next employed themselves to subvert the republic of Florence, which they gave to the Medici; and in the midst of these events the pope died 1513, aged 70. Julius was fond of the fine arts, patronized Bramante, Michael Angelo, and Raffaele, and began the noble structure of St. Peter's. It was said of him, that he threw St. Peter's keys into the Tiber, the better to use that apostle's sword.

SCOTLAND UNDER JAMES IV.—James succeeded his father, James III., at 15, 1488; and the first marked event of his life was his lapse into a state of melancholy, 1494, on reflecting that he had countenanced the rebellion by which his father perished. In obedience therefore to the pope's legate, he bound about his waist an iron belt, to be worn in penance day and night for the remainder of his life. Some time after, his queen fell sick, and he made a pilgrimage to St. Ninian's in Gallo-way on foot for her recovery; and she being at length restored to health, they both went thither the same year to return thanks. It was in

1508 that Stephen Bull, a courageous English captain, undertook to seize Wood, the Scottish admiral, who had made prizes of five British ships sent to ravage the shores about the Frith of Forth. Wood, however, captured Bull in a very severe battle, and presented him to his sovereign; who immediately ordered his dismissal, and received the thanks of Henry VII. for his generous conduct. James, after withdrawing his aid from Perkin the impostor, married Margaret, the daughter of king Henry; and in commemoration of an event which he thought would unite the two countries for ever, gave a series of splendid entertainments, built palaces, and fitted out large ships, to a degree that seriously trenchoned upon his finances. On the accession of Henry VIII., he declared war against England, on account of the incursions of the English borderers; and meeting the forces of his brother-in-law at Flodden, fell in a battle there, together with the flower of his nobility, (aged 40) 1513. The university of Aberdeen was founded in this reign; and learning was so much patronized by the Scottish clergy, that an act was passed, enjoining all barons and freeholders to put their eldest sons to grammar-schools. In 1512 the clergy, in a council at Edinburgh, drew up the famous 'Valor Beneficiorum,' known by the title of 'Bagimont's Roll.'

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XII.—This prince, who acquired the enviable title of 'le père de son peuple,' was the son of Charles duc d'Orleans and Mary of Cleve, and succeeded his kinsman, Charles VIII., 1498. He immediately relieved his people by diminishing the taxes; and generously pardoned Louis de la Trimouille, whom he had made prisoner at the battle of St. Aubin, observing that 'a king of France does not revenge the injuries done to a duke of Orleans,' alluding to the captive's hostility to him when he bore that title. Having repudiated his wife, Joan of France, 1499, he married Anne of

Bretagne, widow of Charles VIII.; and in the same year he conquered the Milanese. Some months after, Louis Sforza having prevailed on the inhabitants of that duchy to revolt, he sent an army into Italy under La Trimouille, who restored the Milanese to his obedience; and Louis Sforza being delivered up to him, was shut up at Loches in France in an iron cage, in which he died 10 years after. Louis XII. at length thought of making good his right to Naples; and for that purpose joined his forces to those of Ferdinand the Catholic. These two princes made themselves masters of that kingdom in 1501, but quarrelled when they came to divide it; on which the Spaniards, conducted by Gonzalo de Cordova, defeated the French at Seminara, 1503, and drove them out. Louis concluded a peace in 1505; and in 1507 chastised the Genoese, who had revolted, made his public entry into Genoa, and recovered the Milanese. In 1508 was formed the famous league of Cambray, between Louis XII., Julius II., Maximilian I., and Ferdinand; and in 1509 Louis defeated the Venetians in person at Aignadel, and took from them Cremona and Padua. Julius II. becoming jealous of this extraordinary success, quitted the confederacy, and even entered into a league, 1510, against Louis, with Ferdinand, Henry VIII. of England, and the Venetians; he also put the kingdom of Louis under an interdict. Enraged at these proceedings, the latter called a national council at Tours, in which it was agreed to summon a general one at Pisa, to which the pope should be cited; but Julius, on the other hand, called one in the Lateran palace. Gaston de Foix, duke of Nemours, who commanded the French in Italy, obtained a victory over the confederates at Ravenna, 1511, but was killed after the battle; and his death occasioned the loss of the Milanese, where the Swiss re-established Maximilian Sforza, the son of Ludovico. Louis then allied with the Venetians, and

in 1513 his army, commanded by La Trimouille, retook the Milanese for the third time; but the Swiss soon after drove the French out of that province. The Swiss also, in conjunction with Maximilian and the English, defeated the French in what was called 'the battle of the spurs,' near Guinegaste, and after that engagement took Tournay. Louis, in this extremity, brought about an accommodation with the Swiss, entered into a treaty with pope Leo X., concluded a peace with the Spaniards, and allied with the English by marrying, for his third wife, Mary, sister of Henry VIII., 1514. He was resuming his projects against the Milanese, when death seized him, aged 53, 1515.

DENMARK, &c. UNDER JOHN I.—He succeeded to the Scandinavian kingdoms 1481, on the death of his father Christiern I.; though Sweden scarcely acknowledged his authority, and for many years owned Steno Sture, nephew of Knutson, and viceroy of John, (*see Christiern I.*) as its ruler. At length John attacked the malcontents with a large army in Dittmarsh; and having wholly defeated them, was crowned at Stockholm, 1497. In a few months, however, the Swedes, jealous of the preference shown to the Danes, drove him out of Stockholm, and seized the queen; who was only released on promising that neither the king nor herself should ever claim authority again in Sweden. The rest of the reign of John was marked by his numerous attempts to restore the union of Calmar; but he died without effecting that object, aged 61, 1513.

PORTUGAL UNDER EMANUEL.—Emanuel succeeded his cousin João II., who died without issue, 1495. His reign has been styled, 'the golden age of Portugal.' He protected men of learning, drove the Moors out of his dominions, and took many cities and fortresses in Africa. Carrying out the designs of his predecessor João, he equipped a fleet under Vasco de Gama for the prosecution of the voyage to India, (effected as

far as doubling the Cape by Diaz, 1487,) 1497. A spirit of enterprise, when roused and put in motion, is always progressive; and that of the Portuguese, though slow and timid in its first operations, gradually acquired vigour, and prompted them, by despising dangers which formerly appalled them, to advance far beyond the utmost boundary of ancient navigation. From unacquaintance with the proper season for choosing the route in that vast ocean through which he had to steer his course, De Gama's voyage was long and dangerous; but in ten months from the period of quitting the port of Lisbon, he landed at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, in India, 1498. That territory was then governed by a prince of the Nair tribe, styled the Zamorin; and being astonished at the visit of an unknown people, whose aspect, and arms, and manners bore no resemblance to any of the nations accustomed to frequent his harbours, and who had arrived by a course hitherto deemed impracticable, he received them with that fond admiration which is often excited by novelty; but in a short time formed schemes to destroy them. De Gama, however, extricated himself and his party with singular prudence and dexterity from every danger, and at last sailed from Calicut with his ships richly laden. He returned to Portugal in two years after his sailing from the Tagus, but with a great loss of men; only 55 out of 148 whom he took out, having survived. Emanuel received him with all possible testimonies of respect and kindness, created him a count, and not only declared him admiral of the Indies, but made that office hereditary in his family. On the first intelligence of Gama's successful voyage, the Venetians, with the quick-sighted discernment of merchants, foresaw the ruin of that lucrative branch of commerce which had so contributed to aggrandize their country; and their fears were shown to have been well founded, when Emanuel selected a succession of officers to take the supreme command in

India, who, by their valour, military skill, political sagacity, and integrity, accomplished, in 24 years after the voyage of De Gama, the virtual conquest of countries now known by the general name of 'The East Indies.' One of the successors of Gama was Albuquerque, whom Emanuel sent out as viceroy, with a strong fleet; and he took possession of Ormus, in the Persian Gulf, and of the island of Goa on the Malabar coast; on which last he founded a city, the capital of the Portuguese possessions in the East. These conquests secured to the Portuguese the control of the whole interior commerce of India. Shutting out the Egyptians and other traders, they carried on their transactions without opposition, prescribed to the natives the terms of their mutual intercourse, set what price they pleased on the goods they purchased, and were thus enabled to import from Hindustan and the regions beyond it, whatever is useful or rare. When the Mamluk sultan of Egypt, soon after, urged by the Venetians, attacked the Portuguese in the Red Sea, the latter faced his formidable squadron with undaunted courage, defeated it, and remained masters of the Indian Ocean. The colonists continued their progress until they established a commercial empire, to which, whether we consider its extent, its opulence, the slender power by which it was formed, or the splendour with which the government of it was conducted, there had hitherto been nothing comparable in the history of nations. Emanuel, who laid the foundation of this stupendous fabric, lived long enough to see it almost completed, and died, aged 53, 1521. Every part of Europe was now supplied by the Portuguese with the productions of the East, if we except some inconsiderable quantity of them, which the Venetians still continued to receive by the ancient channel of Egypt; and their dominion in India subsisted in full vigour for more than half a century from that period. Dis-

sensions at home, and the transfer of Portugal to Philip II. of Spain, 1580, led to the neglect and decline of the Asiatic colonies; and upon the occurrence of war with the Netherlands, the Dutch, then rising into maritime distinction, deprived Philip II. of them all, save Macao and Goa, which have continued to belong to Portugal to this day.

GERMANY UNDER MAXIMILIAN I.—He succeeded his father, Frederick IV., 1493, at 34, having married in 1477, Mary, the wealthy heiress of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, by whom he had Philip, who married the heiress of Spain, and became the father of Charles V. and Ferdinand I. The conquest of Naples by Charles VIII. of France having greatly alarmed Maximilian, he entered into a league with the pope and other princes to stop the progress of his arms; but the allied forces were beaten, or at least put to a stand, at Fortnova, 1495. Maximilian allied with Louis XII. against the Venetians, and subsequently with Henry VIII. of England, 1513, against Louis himself; in which latter dispute the emperor condescended to enlist in Henry's service, wear the cross of St. George, and receive pay (100 crowns a day) as one of his subjects and captains. But while he exhibited the extraordinary spectacle of an emperor of Germany serving under a king of England, he was treated with the highest respect by Henry, and really directed all the operations of the combined army. It was this alliance which defeated the French at the battle of the spurs, 1513. Maximilian, who was evidently an eccentric prince, formed at one time the chimerical design of causing himself to be elected coadjutor to pope Julius II. He was always unhappy, and poor; but he loved the sciences and learned men, and, besides some poems, composed memoirs of his own life, which terminated at the age of 61, 1519.

POLAND UNDER JOHN ALBERT.—John Albert was the son of Casimir

IV., and succeeded him 1492; but nothing occurred either in his reign, or in that of his brother ALEXANDER, who became king at his death in 1501, and reigned till 1506, worthy of memorial, beyond the perpetual harass received by both monarchs from the incursions of the Turks and Tartars.

RUSSIA UNDER IVAN III. THE GREAT.—The only interesting events in the history of Russia, from the period of the Mongul invasion, 1237, to the accession of Ivan III., as grand duke, (better known as *Ivan Vasiliowitz I.*) who succeeded his father Vasili (Basil) the Blind, 1462, were the alternate contests with the Tartars and Poles, to protect the country from their aggressions; the general alarm of the Russians at the progress of Timur, who after threatening them with entire subjugation, directed his attention to the East; and a quarrel respecting the throne in the reign of Ivan's father, when the cousins of Vasili put out his eyes (whence his appellation), but were obliged by the people to fly from Moscow, and leave their sightless relative in possession of the throne. Ivan III. proved both the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the foundation of its future grandeur. After marrying the princess Sophia, daughter of Thomas Palæologus, who had been driven from Constantinople, and forced to take refuge at Rome, he was willing to listen to the dictates of his consort's more cultivated mind, and to make the best use of her remark one day at dinner, 'that she was surprised to find she had married a slave of the Tartars.' The remonstrance alluded to the servile ceremony annually observed since the Mongul conquest of 1237 (*see Vol. I., page 582*); and nettled at the reproach, Ivan feigned himself ill when the next deputation from the Tartars arrived, and, under that pretext, avoided a repetition of the stipulated humiliating proceeding. He soon after required the Mongul legates, whose abode was in the precincts of the kremlin (or palace) of Moscow,

to find lodgings in the city; and perceiving these Tartar representatives quietly submit to his commands, he boldly commenced hostilities against the Mongul emperor, and made himself master of Casan, 1477. The liberation of his country from Tartar despotism was thus effected for a while. The province of Permian, with great part of Lapland, submitted to him; and Great Novogorod, (a city then so famous, that the Russians used to express its importance by the proverbial expression of 'Who can resist God and the Great Novogorod?') was reduced by his generals, after a seven years' siege, and yielded him the immense treasure of 300 cart-loads of gold and silver. All the northern nations, beholding with terror the rapid increase of duke Ivan's power, now courted his alliance; but the Poles, under Casimir IV., seemed inclined to resist,—the more especially as that king had built upon a promise made by Ivan that Novogorod should be given up to Poland. Ivan, however, overran Lithuania, and compelled Casimir to purchase a cessation of arms; and Serbia, which had hitherto been a tributary state of Poland, now put itself under the protection of Muscovy. After the death of Casimir, Ivan totally subdued Lithuania; but in attempting to bring Livonia under his yoke was defeated, 1502, by the Knights of the Cross, under their grand-master, Walter Von Plettenberg, with immense loss. The latter years of Ivan's life were embittered by domestic quarrels: his second consort, Sophia, wishing to give the sovereignty to her own children, induced him to set aside Demetrius, his grandson, the rightful heir, in favour of her son Gabriel. Soon after reluctantly consenting to this arrangement, Ivan died, aged 69, 1505.

FOUNDATION OF MODERN PERSIA.

—It was shown, in the reign of Tamerlane, that Uzen Hasan, a Turkish chieftain, killed the last Persian prince of the great Mongul's house, 1468, and usurped the throne. The supre-

macy of the family of Hasan, however, was of short duration; for Ismail the Sage, descended from the celebrated religious teacher, Sheikh Saffilddin, of Ardebil, and remotely related to the house of Hasan, made himself master of Persia, and founded the Seffavean, Saffi, or Sofi dynasty, 1502, thus commencing the present kingdom of Persia. Being warmly devoted to the memory of Ali, he encouraged the Shiah faith; insomuch that he came to be regarded as a saint, and to be called Shah-Shian, king of the Shiahs, all Persia adopting (and still maintaining) the Aliade opinions. Ismail ventured to attack Selim I., of Turkey; but being defeated by that sultan, he contented himself with the conquests he had made, and died in his capital of Bagdad, 1523, transmitting the throne of Persia to a long line of posterity.

DELHI UNDER SEKANDER SHAH LODI.—He succeeded his father Bhe-lol Khan 1488, and pursuing the same vigorous policy, greatly extended his dominions. He removed the capital from Delhi to Agra, in order still further to carry his conquests; but in spite of his endeavours, three other independent Moslim states arose,—Bijapur, Berar, and Golconda; while the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar became powerful, by seizing the greater portion of the territory of the Bahmini kings, who had recently removed their capital from Kalberga to Ahmedabad. In Sekander's reign, the Portuguese first arrived in India, and established settlements on the coast of Malabar, then subject to Hindu rajas. Sekander died 1517. (*See Baber.*)

GRANADA, TILL ITS FALL UNDER BOABDIL.—MULEY ALI ABUL HASAN succeeded his father, Mohammed X., 1466: but the state of affairs grew every day worse. In 1470, the governor of Malaga revolted, and did homage to the king of Castile. The city of Granada, and even its harem, became the scene of those commotions and discords that hastened the ruin of the Moorish empire. The sultana

Ayesha, mother of Abu-Abdallah, heir-presumptive to the throne, entertained a mortal hatred towards another of Hasan's wives, a Spanish lady called Zoraya, and mother of two princes. At that time the two powerful states of Aragon and Castile were united, and the doom of Granada was sealed. The taking of Zahara, 1481, by the generals of Abul-Hasan was the signal of a war of reprisals on the part of Ferdinand V. The city of Alhama, one of the bulwarks of Granada, was reduced in 1482; and in the ensuing year several important fortresses opened their gates to the conqueror. Meanwhile the Moorish court was divided into two hostile factions—those of Ayesha and Zoraya. The tribe of the Zegris (Zegris) supported the former; that of the Beni Sarraj (Abencerrages) the latter; one held the Alhazn, the other the Alhambra; and the streets of Granada were daily stained with the blood of its inhabitants. Though Abu-Abdallah, called *Assaghir* (the small), succeeded in dethroning his father; 1483, he was himself taken prisoner by the Christians near Lucena in a few weeks; and Abul-Hasan regained momentary possession of his capital, 1484. The undutiful *Assaghir*, however, having obtained his liberty, again disputed the throne with his aged father; and at last the people of Granada, leaving the father and son to settle their quarrel, appointed Abdallah *Zagal* (the brave), uncle of *Assaghir*, king. In the meanwhile Ferdinand was pushing on his conquests. In June 1484, he took Alora and Setenil; in 1485, Ronda and Marbella fell into his hands; Loxa surrendered 1486; and the ensuing campaign began by the taking of Malaga. But these successes did not rouse the Moors to a sense of their danger, or induce them to put an end to their civil dissensions; for, profiting by the absence of *Zagal* from his capital, *Assaghir* marched upon Granada, and again usurped the throne. This prince, whose name of Abu-Abdallah has

been abbreviated by chroniclers to Bu-abdad, and thence corrupted to *Boabdil*, was now glad to own Ferdinand of Castile his suzerain, in order to enjoy the title of king of Granada. The state, however, was on the brink of ruin by intestine commotions; and especially by the rivalry of the two potent families of the Zegris and Abencerrages. It was in 1489, when the army had returned unsuccessful from the siege of Jaen, that the Zegris, then high in the favour of *Boabdil*, conspired to prove that failure the work of the Abencerrages, whose chief, Albin Hamed, they solemnly declared, not only aspired to the throne, but had become the secret paramour of the queen. The fury of *Boabdil* may easily be imagined by those acquainted with the Moorish character; and he swore the instant annihilation of the whole race of Ben Zerragh. Ordering 30 of his guards to arm themselves, and the executioner to attend, he took his seat in the hall of lions of the Alhambra; and summoning the Abencerrages, as on occasions of council, contrived that they should enter the apartment one by one. As each unsuspecting victim passed the portal, he was seized and beheaded; and no less than 35 were sacrificed in this manner, before intelligence was obtained without of the tragedy which was enacting within. All the Abencerrages would thus have died but for a little page, who, following his master closely, was admitted unperceived, during the confusion that prevailed amongst the guards in the vestibule. Appalled on perceiving the floor of the hall strewn with mangled corpses, he fled with precipitancy, and cried out to the first of his master's house whom he met, 'You are betrayed!' In an incredibly brief space of time, 14,000 men were in arms at the gates of the palace, to avenge the death of men so generally beloved by the citizens; and a party of Abencerrages rushed into the hall of lions, and though *Boabdil* escaped, put to death more than 200 of his adherents in and about the

Alhambra. Muley Hasan was again declared king, but resigned in favour of his son, on hearing that he had made his peace with the house of Ben Zerragh. Boabdil, however, had determined on the death of the queen; but she was advised, on the day appointed for her execution, to commit her cause to some Christian knights, who at tilt and tournament defeated her false accusers, and obtained her liberty. The fall of Granada speedily followed this combat, the Abencerages giving every facility to the hostile movements of Ferdinand, who in the spring of 1491, invested its capital; and after a siege of nearly a year, the standard of the cross waved on the red towers of the Alhambra, 1492. Boabdil, on being compelled by his conqueror to retire to Alpuxares, a small domain allotted him for his future abode, turned round to take a last view of his beloved capital from a neighbouring hill. His whole family accompanied him; and bursting into tears, he sank on the ground, overwhelmed with grief at the recollection of what he had lost. 'My son,' said his mother Aysha, 'you have cause indeed to weep like a woman, who defended not your throne either as a monarch or a man!' The unhappy prince, quitting his beloved Spain soon after for Africa, fell in battle there on the side of the king of Fez. The Moors bewail to this day their expulsion from Granada, which had been their place of abode for 780 years. Each evening in their prayers do they supplicate heaven to restore them possession of a country, connected in their fervid imaginations with all that is romantic, heroic, and glorious in their annals. Their last ambassador from the wilds of Africa begged permission of the Spanish king to set his foot in the palace of the Alhambra; and his pathetic lamentation when he entered its deserted walls, has furnished the theme of many a modern poet's lay. Mr. Lockhart, in his Spanish ballads, has most touchingly portrayed the deep feeling of the swarthy race on ordi-

nary occasions of mourning; while Mr. Washington Irving has accumulated, in his recent visit to the Alhambra, a fund of matter highly interesting to every investigator of Spanish history. When Granada fell, an offer was made of free citizenship to all such Moors and Jews as would embrace Christianity: few, however, accepted the proposal, and 170,000 families quitted Spain for ever. This extensive expatriation depopulated Spain of artists and labourers; and the contemporaneous discovery of America not only aggravated the evil, but brought upon the remaining Spaniards, by the influx of wealth, a deplorable indolence, which has, more or less, to this day characterized the people of the peninsula.

MILAN UNDER LUDOVICO SFORZA.

—It has been shown that this prince, surnamed 'the Moor,' poisoned his nephew, 1494, to obtain the ducal throne. He however met eventually with the punishment due to his crime. Louis XII. having overrun the Milanese district, 1499, compelled Ludovico to hold it as a fief of France; but the latter having, after a few months, incited his people to revolt against the French, Louis sent La Trimouille into Italy to reduce them to obedience. The general effected his object, and carried Ludovico prisoner to France; whereon Louis shut him up in an iron cage at Loches, in which he passed the remaining 10 years of his miserable existence, dying 1509. Milan continued under French governors until the dispute between Louis XII. and pope Julius II., in consequence of the latter joining in a league against him with Henry VIII. of England and the Venetians, 1510. On that occasion, Gaston de Foix, duc de Nemours, who commanded the French in Italy, gained the victory of Ravenna over the confederates, 1511, but was killed after the battle; and upon its being found that Gaston had fallen, the Swiss proclaimed Maximilian, the son of Ludovico Sforza, duke of Milan, and in 1512 the emperor Maximilian ob-

tained him full possession of the state.

VENICE UNDER LUIGI LOREDANO.—Loredano succeeded as doge 1501, at a moment when the oligarchy was deeply depressed by the change in its commercial prosperity. In the year 1497, when the discovery of a passage to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope was made, the European trade with India, which had been exclusively in the hands of the Venetians, was lost to them. The carriage by way of Alexandria almost entirely ceased; and it was wholly out of the power of the oligarchy to keep up a naval force sufficient to cope with the Portuguese (the instrument of their deprivation), on the wide Atlantic. Moreover the Turks still harassed them; and in 1508, the league of Cambray between the pope, emperor of Germany, and king of France, took place, especially to crush the Venetian power. By the skilful management of Loredano, the oligarchy weathered the storm, and a treaty was at length formed with France against the emperor; but though so far successful, the decline of Venice had begun, and respectable as her maritime authority remained for centuries after, she was never able, but on occasion of the seizure of Candia, to resist with spirit the encroachments of the Turks and other invaders. The declension of Venice, therefore, did not, like that of Rome, proceed from the increase of luxury, or the revolt of her own armies in distant colonies, or from civil wars of any kind. She dwindled in importance and power, from causes which could not be foreseen, or guarded against by human prudence even had they been foreseen. Loredano died 1521.

NAPLES UNDER ALFONSO II., &c.—Fernando I. was succeeded by his son Alfonso, 1494, a gloomy and (it is said) cruel prince, who, terrified at the approach of the French (mentioned in the last reign), abdicated in favour of his own son, **FERNANDO II.**, 1495, and retired to a monastery in

Sicily. Fernando endeavoured to rally his troops against the invaders; but being forsaken by them all, he withdrew to Sicily, with his uncle Frederigo. The French occupied Naples; but their conduct soon disgusting the Neapolitans, Fernando seized the opportunity to ask assistance from Ferdinand V. of Spain. Gonzalo of Cordova, the Spanish general, soon arrived with an army, and having reconquered Naples with expedition, Fernando returned in triumph to his capital; but he did not long enjoy his prosperity, dying suddenly 1496, aged 28. He was succeeded by his uncle, **FREDERIGO III.**, who thought it better to conciliate than oppose the French. The invaders, therefore, soon aware of his disposition, offered him, in the name of their sovereign, Louis XII., an annual pension of 30,000 ducats, with the title of duke of Anjou, if he would relinquish his title to Naples; and this he accordingly acceded to, 1501. The state was then shared between Louis and Ferdinand of Castile; but so unnatural a proceeding, as might be expected, soon brought the respective nations of the two kings into collision, and Gonzalo was at length again authorized to expel the French from Italy. This he effected 1503, but had scarcely re-entered Naples in triumph as viceroy, when another French force, under La Trimouille, assailed him, 1504. It is shown, in the memoir of Gonzalo, how completely he overcame it at Garigliano, and a third time entered Naples a victor. From that period to the present day, both Naples and Sicily (or, as they are conjunctively styled, the kingdom of the Two Sicilies,) have been attached, so far as royal relationship is concerned, to the crown of Spain, and they made part and parcel of its territories until 1759; when Don Carlos being called to succeed his brother Ferdinand VI. as king of Spain, gave them to his younger son Fernando, who took the title, first of Fernando IV. of Naples, and, at his restoration in 1815, of

Fernando I. of the Two Sicilies.
(See *Masaniello*.)

FLORENCE UNDER LORENZO DE MEDICI.—This noble character succeeded his father Pietro 1472, at the age of 21. Some of the most talented men of the age had been his tutors, and Picus of Mirandola and Politian were his fellow pupils; and though such advantages are too often of little avail to the careless student, Lorenzo became an accomplished scholar, and, in his political capacity, acquired the respect of foreign potentates. His disputes with pope Sixtus IV. exposed him to great personal hazard; and a conspiracy being formed by the Pazzi, the hereditary enemies of his family, Lorenzo and his brother Julio were attacked by assassins during divine service at church, 1478, and Julio fell a victim. The party of the duke was powerful enough to punish the daring murderers; and Lorenzo, having come to terms with the pope, found himself at leisure to indulge his taste in schemes for the advancement of learning and the arts, which he prosecuted with an extraordinary degree of success. He revived the academy of Pisa, and founded a gallery of arts, where Michael Angelo, under his patronage, pursued his youthful studies. He sent John Lascaris to Greece, to gather MSS. wherewith to enrich his library; and, by his princely generosity to the learned, and his exertions for the improvement of literature, obtained the title of 'the Magnificent.' He died in the zenith of his renown, much lamented by his subjects and the lovers of letters in general, at the age of 44, 1492. His second son, Giovanni, was chosen a cardinal at 13, and became the celebrated pope Leo X. The Medici preserved their power in Florence, with occasional obstacles, until the acknowledgment of Cosmo II., 1569, by the pope as grand duke; when the state was raised to a grand duchy, a rank which it has maintained to this day under the more classic name of Tuscany. (See *Cosmo I.*)

VOL. II.

IRELAND UNDER HENRY VII.—The Irish, after Richard II.'s death, still retained a warm affection for the male house of Plantagenet; and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cause. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lieutenant of Ireland for his services against the Ormond party, and other adherents of the house of Lancaster; and he was the first Irish chieftain that obtained that honour. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title of duke of Lancaster; and they therefore readily joined Lambert Simmel, who pretended to be the eldest son of Edward IV., though they paid dearly for this line of conduct, in the defeat they sustained on invading England. They were consequently cautious at first in joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithstanding his plausible pretences to be the duke of York, second son of Edward IV. He was, however, at last declared king by the Irish; and in the history of Henry's reign, the event of his pretensions will be found. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Irish nobility to take a fresh oath of allegiance to his government; a lenity which had the desired effect during the administration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surrey, and the earl of Ormond. Indeed Henry VII. was the first to civilize Ireland to any degree. This he effected by enacting salutary laws; and Sir Edward Poyning's contributed more than any other of his governors to the tranquillity of the state. During his administration was passed the law known as *Poyning's Law*, the purport of which was, that no parliament should be held in Ireland, without previous notice being given to the king of England of the acts to be passed in that parliament. Thus the power of the turbulent barons was greatly broken; and the governor, not having it in his power to assemble parliaments when he pleased, became a

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person of much less importance. From this time we may date the revival of the English power in Ireland; which, from the Scottish war in the time of Edward II., had gradually declined into a miserable and precarious state of weakness. The seignior of the British crown over the whole body of the Irish, was now formally asserted; and some of the

most ferocious chieftains, by their marriage connexions, became the avowed friends of the English power. An ignominious tribute, called the *Black Rent*, was indeed still paid to some chieftains; but the encroachments of such were opposed and chastised, and the hitherto most independent petty lords were made to own the suzerainty of the English government.

EMINENT PERSONS.

FRANCESCO XIMENES (1437—1517) was born at Torrelagunna, in Old Castile, of the honourable but poor family of Cisneros; and after taking holy orders, suddenly entered among the monks of St. Francis, in which community he was soon remarkable for his rigid attention to religious duties. When obliged to attend the court, as confessor of Isabella of Castile, he preserved the same sternness; and such was the opinion of his sanctity, that the queen raised him in 1495 to the archbishopric of Toledo, then, next to the papacy, the richest dignity in the Church. Promotion, however, produced no alteration in Ximenes' manners; and under his pontifical robes he wore the coarse frock of a Franciscan friar, which he mended with his own hands. He at no time used linen, but wore hair-cloth next his skin; and in both his lodgings and diet he was still attentive to the severe rules of his order. Notwithstanding these peculiarities, so inconsistent with the manners of the world, he possessed a thorough knowledge of its affairs; and when called upon by Ferdinand and Isabella to take a principal share in the administration of the government, he displayed talents for business which rendered the fame of his wisdom equal to that of his sanctity. In 1507, Julius II. bestowed on him a cardinal's hat; and shortly after, the king appointed him prime minister. His conduct in this exalted station was so satisfactory to his master, that at his death in 1516, he left Ximenes sole regent of Castile, till the arrival of his grandson and successor (afterwards

the emperor Charles V.) in Spain. The national character of the Spaniards and the existing state of affairs combined to render the duties of the new regent peculiarly arduous; but by a rare union of prudence, firmness, and decision, he preserved undiminished the authority with which he had been entrusted, in spite of the cabals of the nobility, and the more dangerous intrigues of the courtiers who surrounded the young king during his residence in the Netherlands—where he continued twenty months after the death of his grandfather. Though nearly 80 when he held the reins of government, Ximenes abated nothing of the rigour of his mortifications, or the regularity of his attentions to religious duties; and such exercises did not prevent him from constantly attending the council of state, reading all papers presented to him, dictating letters and instructions, and inspecting all business, civil, ecclesiastical, and military. The only amusement in which he indulged, by way of relaxation, was to canvass, with a few friars and other theologians, some intricate article of scholastic divinity. The ungrateful requital of his services by the prince whose interests he had so powerfully promoted, caused his death. Ximenes, when the king landed in Spain, 1517, set out to meet him; but upon reaching Aranda, he received a letter from Charles, in which, after a few cold and formal expressions of regard, he was permitted, or rather ordered, to retire to his diocese, 'that, after a life of such continued exertion, he might end his days in tran-

quillity.' His high spirit could not brook this unmerited indignity, and he expired a few hours after reading the letter, Nov. 8, 1517. The variety, the grandeur, and the success of Ximenes' schemes during his short regency, leave it doubtful whether his sagacity in council, his prudence in conduct, or his boldness in execution, deserve the superior praise. His reputation has been permanent, not only for wisdom, but for sanctity; and 'he is,' says Dr. Robertson, 'the only prime minister mentioned in history whom his contemporaries revered as a saint, and to whom the people under his government ascribed the power of working miracles.' Literature was indebted to the cardinal for academical foundations at Alcala and Talavera, and also on account of the famous Complutensian polyglott bible, printed under his patronage at Alcala, (Complutum).

GONZALO DE CORDOVA (1453—1515), of the noble house of d'Aguiar, but a younger brother, rose in the army of Isabella, and (like our Raleigh afterwards) owed the impetus of his elevation to the gallant act of rushing into the water, clad in magnificent brocade, to carry the queen from a boat. He served at the conquest of Granada, received an estate as his reward, and was then earnestly recommended to her consort by Isabella. He was appointed over the heads of his seniors in rank to command, and sent by Ferdinand to Calabria, to aid Fernando II. of Naples against the French king, Charles VIII. After having driven the French from Naples, and reinstated Fernando, pope Alexander VII. procured his aid against one Menoldo Guerri, of Biscay, to whom Charles VIII., on his retreat, delivered Ostia in trust, and who, by his exactions from the trading vessels of the Tiber, distressed and starved Rome. Gonzalo surrounded that fortress with his veterans, stormed it on the eighth day, and the Eternal City, the capital of Christendom, beheld the hero of the age bringing in chains the

monster that had occasioned her alarm—a modern triumph, the glory of which the conqueror enhanced by requesting and obtaining the pardon of the vanquished, and an exemption from all taxes during ten years for the inhabitants of Ostia and its environs. Thus did the great captain crown his first expedition to Italy, 1498. In 1500, he suppressed a revolt of the converted Moors in the Alpujarras, and requested their pardon also as the reward of his victory. Charles VIII. having died 1498 and been succeeded by Louis XII., the latter made preparations to expel Sforza from Milan, and to stretch his arms as far as Naples. Ferdinand, who now agreed to partake of the spoil, sent Gonzalo to Italy again, but only as an ally of the Venetians. The first result of this campaign was the taking of Cefalonia from the Turks, 1500; and the next the inducing Fernando of Naples to relinquish his territories, as related in the reign of that prince. Gonzalo entered Naples a second time in triumph, 1504; and had scarcely found time to breathe, when a new French army, under La Trimouille, advanced upon the conquered territory. Gonzalo again seized the opportunity, and actually crushed the enemy at Garigliano. 'The miserable remnant of the French hosts,' says Peter Martyr, 'the finest army which the sun ever beheld, crawled and limped back through Italy, scorned and hooted at;' the peasantry rose upon them in masses, and the roads ran with the blood of the poor ill-requited victims of their leader's incapacity. They retained nothing of their conquests but the dishonour and disease. Gonzalo, meanwhile, entered Naples triumphantly for the third time; and having sheathed for ever his victorious sword, exhibited in his civil office of viceroy those talents which had distinguished him in the field—justice, fortitude, temperance, magnificence, gentleness, wisdom. Indifferent to honours and advantages for himself, he impoverished his own private for-

tune to pay such of his comrades as had been neglected by the king; and he continued to govern Naples with the popularity which such a conduct engendered, till the knell of Isabella's death (the fatal warrant to Columbus also) struck heavily on his ear. Ferdinand of Spain, who up to this time had honoured and trusted his viceroy, now became alarmed at his fame. He resolved (at the political crisis after the archduke Philip's death) to dispossess Gonzalo; but the general, anticipating his intention, resigned, and returned to Spain, only to experience a coldness and neglect, which eventually drove him from the court to his estate at Loja, where, in the bosom of his family, honoured by all but his sovereign, he died, aged 62, 1515.

MARSILIUS FICINUS, an eminent reviver of the platonic philosophy in Europe, was born at Florence, where his father was physician to Cosmo de Medici. He became president of Cosmo's academy of Greek philosophy, and employed all his leisure in translating the works of Plato and Plotinus; but when Lorenzo the Magnificent succeeded, that prince induced him to take orders, and gave him preferment. A long period of ill health, the result of excessive study, preceded his death, 1499, at the age of 66. The remarks of this author on the evils attendant on too great an indulgence in literary pursuits, are worthy the professed student's notice. 'Surely,' he observes, 'scholars are the silliest people in the world. Other men look to their tools: a painter will cleanse his pencils, a smith will regard the state of his hammer, a husbandman will take care of his plough-irons, a huntsman will look well to his hounds, a musician to his lute: *scholars alone neglect that instrument which they daily use*, by which they range over the whole world, and which is, just in the same manner as are workmen's tools, certain to be injured, and, as they are, *consumed by study*.' On the same subject has written Dr. Madden. 'Study,' says he, 'has no sabbath; the mind of the

student has no holiday. He works his brain, as if its delicate texture were an imperishable material, which no excess was capable of injuring. Idleness to him is *æruugo animi*, and *rubigo ingenii*; but the insidious corrosives of intense thought and constant application are taken no account of; their certain effects are overlooked, because their action is imperceptible. Let the scholar remember, that the balance of health can be maintained in its natural equilibrium only when mental exertion is proportionate to bodily activity. When this is not the case, literary fame is dearly purchased; and all the glory that surrounds it cannot make amends for the health that has been sacrificed for its attainment.' The devoted student will be wise if he reflect on what Ficinus and Dr. Madden have said; and as none, in this degenerate day, are more capable of laying down precepts for others' guidance than they who forget to follow them themselves, let him listen, while the author of Parallel History adds something to their remarks. As the nervous power is the prop of life, the system can sustain no injury while that is unimpaired; but the instant it is impeded or diminished, the physical ability of the body is disordered or declines. Now the nervous energy is singularly impeded by injudicious modes and periods of study. At all times the brain, when exercised to a high degree, abstracts too much from the heart; by which uneasy sensations first, and structural injury in the issue, are produced. Deranged digestion, melancholy fears, chilliness of the frame, but especially of the hands and feet, palpitation of the heart, and sudden determinations to the skin, causing faintness, or at least sinking, and often cold but profuse perspirations, are the result of a retarded circulation so engendered. The professed student, rushing as he too often does to his library or desk as soon as he has finished a meal, gives his stomach no chance; it

cannot concoct its food, while he draws away its vital heat to the brain; and for his senses,' if not his life's sake, we would have him, on some leisure day (if he will mind neither Madden nor Ficinus), sit down, and translate into all the languages of which he is master, be they as many as the four-and-twenty of Mithridates, *Æsop's* fable of 'The Members and the Belly.' That labour over, he will probably get impressed upon his mind the most salutary caution his best friends would wish him to receive.

LEONARDO DA VINCI (1452—1520), natural son of a notary of Florence, was born at Da Vinci. Displaying an extraordinary taste for design at an early age, he was placed under Verrochio, an eminent artist, and soon excelled him in painting; and Ludovico Sforza, struck with admiration on seeing one of his works, invited him to Milan 1489, and settled on him an annual stipend. Here he displayed the universality of his genius by composing music, writing poetry, and by his engineering skill; and here he painted his celebrated 'Last Supper,' which being executed on a wall of the Dominican convent of St. Marca, was soon destroyed by damp, but not before it had been copied by order of Francis I. On his return to Florence, 1508, he was employed by the senate to paint the council chamber, in conjunction with Michael Angelo, then a much younger man; and his admired cartoon of Piccinino's battle of cavalry, was a product of the emulation of these artists. Leonardo visited Rome when Leo X. was pope; but the pontiff being dissatisfied at his slow progress in painting, and the rivalry of Michael Angelo offending him, he was glad to accept the invitation of Francis I. to reside in France. Being an old man, and somewhat feeble when he began his journey, he was overcome by fatigue on reaching Fontainebleau, and confined to his bed by a languishing distemper. The king went frequently to see him dur-

ing his illness; and one day, as the artist was raising himself on his couch to thank him for the honour done him, he was seized with a fainting fit, and died in the arms of Francis, who had stepped forward to support him. This occurred 1520, Leonardo being 68. Da Vinci is regarded as the first correct painter of modern times. Chiaroscuro may be called his invention; and though his solicitude to be correct made him slow, and his colours soon faded, through his fondness for chemical experiments, he founded a style, particularly for the delineation of male heads, which enabled Raffaele and Michael Angelo subsequently to gain immortal fame.

CRISTOVAL COLUMBUS (1442—1506), properly Colon, was born of poor Genoese parents: and, after early serving as a common sailor in merchant ships, entered among the corsairs. The blowing up of the piratical vessel to which he belonged induced him to join his brother, who was settled at Lisbon; and there he is said to have been suddenly seized with a desire to find if there were countries far westward in the Atlantic, on hearing some mariners, who had been wrecked 1400 miles west of Cape St. Vincent, tell how they had found land, with canes growing thereon large enough to hold two gallons of water between each joint. Returning to Genoa, he in vain implored that republic to aid his designs; and was in a similar way refused aid by the kings of Portugal and England. Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, however, entered into his views; and, with the promise that he should be viceroy of all the countries he might add to Spain, and receive a tenth of all profits derived, did the enterprising Colon set forth, Aug. 2, 1492, on that portentous expedition which gave us a new world, and immortalized his own name. In crossing the Atlantic, the variation of the compass was first observed, a phenomenon which filled the sailors with strange apprehensions; and had not the Bahama isle, St. Salvador, ap-

peared soon after, their fears would have compelled Colon to return home. He now ventured to explore other West India islands, including Hispaniola, where he built a fort, and left a few Spaniards; and returning homewards, arrived in safety at Lisbon, where the news of his discoveries excited the chagrin of the king, at having rejected his proffered services. At Barcelona, Colon was received by Ferdinand and Isabella with public honours; and the value and importance of his discoveries appear to have been duly appreciated. The gold, the pearls, and other valuable productions which he brought from the New World, having procured him numerous followers, he engaged in a second expedition, shortly after the termination of the former. In this voyage he made additional discoveries; but it was during a third, commenced in 1498, that he first saw the main land of America; so that he was preceded by Sebastian Cabot, and Americus Vesputius, who departed from Europe in 1497, and visited the American continent just before him. The latter of these rivals, too, has superseded him in the honour of giving a name to the New World. The ingratitude of the Spanish court rendered the last voyage peculiarly unfortunate to Colon. Having assumed the command of the settlement at Hispaniola, he remained there till Bovadilla, a Spanish officer, arrived to take the government; and this man not only arrested Colon, but put him in chains, and sent him prisoner to Spain. He was however soon released, and subsequently undertook a voyage to find a passage to the East Indies by sailing westward; but in this he did not succeed, and returning to Spain, he died at Valladolid, aged 64, 1506. His remains, by the king's command, were magnificently interred in the cathedral of Seville, and this inscription placed upon his tomb: 'A Castillo y a Leon Nuevo Mundo dio Colon.'

AFFONSO D'ALBUQUERQUE (1452—1515), was born at Melinda in Africa,

of noble parents, descended from a bastard branch of the royal house of Portugal. He was, at the age of 12, page to Affonso V., and then chief esquire to John II.; and in 1503, he conducted a fleet to India, in conjunction with his uncle Francesco, and secured the king of Cochín on his throne, which had been endangered by his powerful neighbour, the zamorin of Calicut. In gratitude for their services, the Albuquerque obtained leave to build a second fort at Cochín, Gama having had leave to construct one in the previous year; and though Francesco was wrecked on his voyage home, Affonso reached Lisbon in safety, 1504. The king sent him out to India again, 1506, in command of a squadron of five ships, composing part of a fleet of 16, under the orders of Tristan da Cunha; and after a great display of jealousy on the part of the Portuguese officials, he was acknowledged commander-in-chief in India. Goa was now attacked by him and taken, 1510: but the ruler of the place, Idalcán, a Moor, by secretly effecting a revolt of his subjects, shut up the conqueror in the citadel; and Albuquerque was glad to escape on the first opportunity to his ships. He, however, returned, and carried the place by storm; and Goa was henceforward one of the most important Portuguese stations in the East. Malacca next fell to his arms, and the town being given up to plunder, one-fifth of the booty alone, which was set apart for the king, was valued at 200,000 gold cruzadoes. Albuquerque hereupon built a citadel at Malacca, coined money, established a new system of law and police, and reached Goa again in time to put down an insurrection organized in his absence by Idalcán. His efforts in 1513 against Aden, on the Red Sea, were wholly unsuccessful; and he returned to Goa, now the Portuguese capital, to devise plans for an attack upon Ormuz. That place yielded to him, 1515; and it remained in possession of the Portuguese until taken from them by the English and

Shah Abbas 1622. Soon after this success, Albuquerque became ill, and was on his return to Goa, when met by a vessel bringing despatches from Portugal; and on learning that Don Lopez Soarez, whom he had sent prisoner to Europe for some act of insubordination, was to be his successor, his proud spirit sank, and he exclaimed in anguish, 'To the grave, miserable old man! to the grave—it is time!' and on the ensuing day died, aged 63, December 16, 1515. His body was conveyed to Goa, and buried in the church of Our Lady, which he had built; and in future years—a touching testimony to the uprightness of his government—Moors and Indians repaired to his tomb, as to that of a father, to implore redress from the injustice and tyranny of his successors. His bones, more than 50 years after his death, were transported to Portugal. As a mere conqueror, Albuquerque was doubtless the unprovoked enslaver of nations; he was also too jealous of the men of talent about him to do them justice; and he was perhaps retributively visited in the end in 'the way he had visited others. But his government had no ground for its harsh treatment of him; and his fate and that of too many other great men must be allowed to prove that gratitude is not the virtue of princes.

VASCO DI GAMA was born at Sines in Portugal, and (in what capacity is not known) lived in the palace of king Emanuel, who appointed him to the command of an expedition, which was to seek its way to the Indian Ocean by sailing round the Cape of Good Hope, then recently discovered by Diaz. Vasco accordingly sailed from Lisbon 1497, with three small vessels and 60 men in all; and having doubled the Cape amid violent tempests, greatly to the consternation of his crews, arrived (by the aid of a pilot, who came on board at Melinda in Africa,) at Calicut, on the coast of Malabar, then a place of great trade, and in the hands of an Arab tribe, May 1498. Though

dissuaded by his officers from going ashore, Vasco armed 12 of his bravest men, and on landing with them, was received with great pomp and ceremony by the natives; who conducted him through the town to a house in the country, where, on the following day, their zamorin, or chief, granted him an audience. As he had come without any important presents to offer, the zamorin looked but coldly on the adventurer; and he was thought happy in returning with his men uninjured to the ships. After repairing his vessels at the Angedive Isles, he again stood across the Indian Ocean, and reached Lisbon, after an absence of 26 months, Sept. 1499. He was advanced to the rank of high admiral by the king, and this his first voyage has ever been regarded as a great epoch in commercial history. It showed the nations of the West the sea-road to the remote East; it diverted the trade of the East from the Persian Gulf, the Red Sea, Asia Minor, Egypt, and Italy, the routes in which it had run for 1400 years; and it led ultimately to the establishment in India of a vast empire of European merchants. Soon after Gama's return, Emanuel sent out a second fleet to India, under the command of Pedro Alvares de Cabral, who established a factory at Calicut—the first humble settlement made by the Europeans in that part of the world. Cabral had scarcely departed for home, when all the Portuguese he had left behind were massacred; and the government now resolving to employ force, Gama set sail with 10 vessels, and on again arriving at Calicut, seized the ships in that port. The zamorin hereupon condescended to treat; but Vasco would listen to no terms, unless a full and sanguinary satisfaction were given for the murder of his countrymen. Having waited three days without receiving a reply, he hanged at his yard-arm 50 Malabar sailors, his prisoners; on the next day cannonaded and destroyed the greater part of the town; and leaving three ships to blockade the port,

sailed with the rest to Cochin, the adjoining state to Calicut. These neighbours being old enemies, it was easy for Gama to make a treaty with the king of Cochin, whom he promised to assist in his wars; and he was allowed to establish a factory in Cochin, 1502, which being followed by a permission granted next year to the Albuquerque to build a second, the port and sea-coast were seized by the settlers, and Cochin became the cradle of the Portuguese power in India. Vasco, on reaching Lisbon, Dec. 1503, was created a peer, and handsomely pensioned by Emanuel; and in 1524, eight years after the death of the great Albuquerque, he was, after a retirement of 20 years, appointed viceroy of Portuguese India, being the first to hold that high title. His death, however, occurred instantly upon his arrival at Cochin to take office, 1525. De Gama ranks below Albuquerque as a hero; nevertheless his fame has been raised far above that of the latter by Camoens, who, in his *Lusiad*, has described the adventures of his first voyage with all that romance, hyperbole, and spirit, for which his muse is distinguished.

CONTEMPORARIES.—*Andrea Verrochio*, a painter, goldsmith, and sculptor of Florence, the first who made casts of eminent persons, died 1488. *George Ripley*, an Englishman, and Latin poetical writer on alchymy, died a Carmelite monk, 1490. *Angelo Poliziano*, an elegant Italian and Latin historian and poet, preceptor to the children of Lorenzo the Magnificent, was born in Tuscany, and died 1495. *Annus of Viterbo* (rightly Giovanni Nanni), an Italian Dominican of great talent, known for imposing on the world, as fragments of lost authors, compositions of his own. He greatly offended his order by the cheat, and died 1502, aged 70. *Jerome Savonarola*, a fanatical prior of Florence, who at one time declaimed against the rule of the Medici, and, after the expulsion of Pietro of that house, announced that our Lord was

coming again on earth to be monarch of Florence! He was strangled for heresy, and then burned, 1498. *Giovanni Pico di Mirandola*, son of the prince of Mirandola in Italy, lost his dominions for a time, and was eventually murdered by his nephew Galeotti, in his castle of Mirandola, together with his son, 1533. He is much celebrated as an Italian writer on theology, morals, the Scriptures, and science. *Alchabiti*, a Venetian, and writer on astrology and optics, died 1498. *Isaac Abrabanel*, a Portuguese rabbi, who affected to trace his descent from king David. He wrote a valuable commentary on the Old Testament, and died in exile at Venice, 1508, aged 71. He was buried at Padua with great pomp, many Christian nobles being among his mourners. *Baptista Mantuan*, a Latin poet of Italy, became general of the Carmelites. His chief works are eclogues called the Seven Virgins, beginning with the Virgin Mary, and Sylvæ; and they were once regarded as equal to the verses of the original Mantuan poet. He died 1516. *Giorione*, an illustrious painter of Venice, who surpassed Titian, his rival, in greatness of conception, as much as he was surpassed by Titian in the delicacies of natural objects. Titian had worked under him, but had been dismissed by him for imitating his style. He introduced the fashion of painting the house-fronts of Venice in fresco; and gave a proof, by his acquaintance with chiaroscuro, of the equal claim to power of painting with sculpture, representing all the sides of the body in the same picture, by the aid of reflection from a fountain at his feet, from a looking-glass at his side, and a shining armour. He died of the plague 1511, aged 32. *John Lascaris*, descended of the eastern imperial family, became celebrated at Florence as a writer; and was sent by Lorenzo de Medici into Greece and Turkey, where, by the sultan's permission, he gained access to all the libraries, and thus greatly enriched Italy on his return. He re-

stored the use of the Greek capital letters, and died aged 90, 1535. *Demetri Chalcondiles*, a Greek of Athens, fled to Italy on the fall of the Eastern Empire, and under Lorenzo de Medici, taught Greek with great credit. He died at Milan, under the like patronage of Luigi Sforza, 1511.

SOVEREIGNS.—**TURKEY.**—1481, Bayezid II. **POPES.**—1484, Innocent VIII.; 1492, Alexander VI.; 1503, Pius III. and Julius II. **SCOTLAND.**—1460, James III.; 1488, James IV. **FRANCE.**—1483, Charles VIII.; 1498, Louis XII. **SWEDEN, DENMARK, and NORWAY.**—1481, John I. **PORTUGAL.**—1481, John II.; 1495, Emanuel. **SPAIN.**—1479, Ferdinand the Catholic and Isabella. **GERMANY.**—1440, Frederick IV.; 1493, Maximilian I. **POLAND.**—1444, Casimir IV.; 1492, John Albert;

1501, Alexander; 1506, Sigismund I. **RUSSIA.**—1462, Ivan III. (the Great); 1505, Vasili IV. **NAVARR.**—1483, Catherine and John d'Albret. **GRANADA.**—1484, Boabdil; added to Spain 1492. **MODERN PERSIAN EMPIRE.**—1502, Ismail I. (the founder). **DELHI.**—1450, Bhelol Lodi, 1488, Sekandar. **NAPLES.**—1458, Ferdinand I.; 1494, Alfonso II.; 1495, Ferdinand II.; 1496, Frederigo III.; 1501, Ferdinand V. (the Catholic,) and Francis I. of France; 1503, Ferdinand V., alone; from which time Naples and Sicily formed one state, and were appended to the Spanish monarchy till 1759. **HUNGARY.**—1458, Matthias I. (Corvinus); 1490, Ladislaus VI. **BOHEMIA.**—1471, Ladislaus II. **EGYPT.**—Under the Borgite Mamluk soldiers.

REIGN CLX.

HENRY VIII., KING OF ENGLAND.

1509 TO 1547—38 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Henry VIII., the youngest son of Henry VII. and his queen Elizabeth, was born at Greenwich 1491, in the palace built by Edward I., to which Humphrey, the good duke of Gloucester, added a park and substantial walls. He was of a good figure, and commanding aspect, remarkably fair, and with a beard so like gold in hue, that an Italian ambassador thought it gilded. That diplomatist (Giustiniani) says that at the age of 29, he took great delight in bowling; and he observes 'it is the pleasantest sight in the world to see him engaged in this exercise, with his fair skin covered with a beautifully fine shirt.' He excelled in all the exercises of youth; but though educated with far greater care than his predecessors, was deficient in the grace and urbanity that usually result from early cultivation of mind. In his general character he displayed impetuosity, arrogance, and pedantry, delighted in pomp and pageantry, and at length gratified his passions at the expense of justice and humanity. From the abject compliance of his court, he acquired almost despotic authority over both peers and people; and became at length so cruel as to make bloodshed his pastime. He married six wives; 1. Catherine, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and widow of his brother Arthur, whom he divorced, and by whom he had Henry, who died young, and *Mary I.*; 2. Anne, daughter of Thomas Boleyn, earl of Wiltshire, whom he beheaded, and by whom he had *queen Elizabeth*; 3. Jane Seymour, sister of Somerset, the protector, by whom he had *Edward VI.*, and who died after the birth of her son; 4. Anne, daughter of John, duke of Cleve, whom he divorced; 5. Catherine, granddaughter of John Howard duke of Norfolk, whom he beheaded; and 6. Catherine,

daughter of Sir Thomas Parr, who survived her tyrannical husband, but, like her two predecessors, had by him no children. Thus the whole issue of Henry and his six wives amounted but to four—and those four proved *issueless*. The character of Henry VIII. is so well denoted by his actions, that we may truly say with lord Herbert, 'his history is his best description.' Love of sway and of sensual gratification were his grand incentives to action; and whenever either of these were checked, all sentiments of humanity were extinguished in him, and he became a monster of injustice and sanguinary fury. His vigorous rule, coming after the wars of the Roses, is allowed to have been serviceable to the internal police of the country; but lamentable must have been the state of society, irrational indeed the human mind in the mass of his people, when we find him not more hated than feared by his subjects, and when we note the slavish disposition of his parliament—ever ready to do his behest, and to carry into immediate execution his unjust, unholy, and most cruel decrees. The royal prerogative being then of a most extensive nature, we may suppose how it was abused by Henry, when he could, as king, compel a man to serve in any office, imprison any one during pleasure, without judge or jury, and extort loans, or as he was pleased to style them 'benevolences,' to the extent of his necessities, from his people.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—No prince could succeed to a throne under happier circumstances than did Henry VIII. (upon the decease of his father, Henry VII., 1509,) at the age of 18, possessing an undisputed title, a full treasury, and a kingdom flourishing in the bosom of peace. He began by establishing a council, consisting of his father's ablest ministers; and put to death as traitors Empson and Dudley, whose extortion had deservedly excited popular odium. His turn of magnificence soon dissipated the hoards of his parent; and his openness and vanity made him the easy dupe of foreign artifice. Instigated by his father-in-law, Ferdinand the Catholic, and pope Julius II. to attack Louis XII., his only rewards were the trifling success of his troops at the battle of *the Spurs* (so called from the flight of the French at Guinegaste, wherein spurs were more used than swords), and the taking of Tournay, 1513.

But while Henry was thus wasting time in France, his general, the earl of Surrey, obtained the important victory of Flodden over the Scots, killing their king, James IV., the brother-in-law of Henry, in the battle, Sept. 9, 1513. And here it should be observed that the Scots, from the time of our second Henry, had been in constant alliance with the French; inasmuch that whole regiments of that people were to be found in the armies of the latter, and no war could commence between England and France, without an immediate invasion of Northumberland by the Scots. On news of this success, Henry granted peace to the queen of Scots, his sister, and established an influence in her kingdom which long rendered his own secure on that side.

The career of Wolsey is the most striking feature of this reign, productive as it was of the most important consequences to the kingdom. That talented man, whose father had been a butcher, had been rapidly elevated by Henry to the highest honours in church and state; and neither the king of France, the emperor of Germany, nor the king of England, appear to have proceeded with any great measure in their respective states, without his advice and interference. The pope made him a cardinal, and the young emperor, Charles V., promised him the popedom. At his solicitation, Henry not only restored Tournay to France, but crossed over to Calais to hold a conference with Francis I., for the purpose of cementing an eternal amity between the nations, 1520. The field whereon they met was ever after called 'the field of the cloth of gold,' as well it might; for very many of the English nobles

were ruined by their extravagant expenditure amid the tilts and tournaments, the spectacles and feasts, which consumed day after day.

But however disposed the mind of Henry might be to court foreign alliances, and extend his dominions, a matter of domestic interest interfered to turn the current of his thoughts. His plan of education had made him a great casuist; and delighted at the notion of entering into the religious disputes then raging in Germany, he wrote a treatise in Latin against the principles of Luther, entitled 'Assertio septem Sacramentorum, adversus Martyn Luther,' on sending which to Leo X., the pontiff conferred on him the title of 'Defender of the Faith,' an appellation which he retained even when he had thrown off the papal yoke, and which his successors have to this day thought proper to retain. 'By a singular felicity,' says Mr. Walpole, 'the title suited Henry equally well when he burned either papists or protestants; it suited each of his daughters, Mary and Elizabeth; it fitted the martyr Charles, and the profligate Charles; the Romish James and the Calvinist William; and at last seemed peculiarly adapted to high-church Anne.' Charles V. hereupon had address enough, by visiting England, 1522, to induce Wolsey and Henry to break again with France, which was accordingly again invaded by an English and Flemish army, under the earl of Surrey. The defeat and capture, however, of Francis I. at Pavia, gave such a preponderance to the power of Charles, that Henry, in alarm, (and instigated by Wolsey, who saw that the emperor was only amusing him on the subject of the papacy,) made peace with Francis, and declared war against Charles. The latter being the great opponent of Luther, Henry, little caring about his own recent publication against the reformers, now became their champion; a course to which he was secretly inclined at the moment by the influence of mere sensual passion. He had been more than 20 years the husband of Catherine, the aunt of Charles, when, struck with the personal charms of Anne Boleyn, one of her maids of honour, he sought a divorce from her, under the guise of religious scruples; and as Clement VII., then a prisoner of the emperor, 1527, with the hope of bringing over the English to his side, and thus obtaining his release, affected to feel for so tender a conscience, Wolsey was employed to debate the matter with other casuists. When, after considerable delay, the king's inability to procure a divorce was declared, the royal ire fell upon the cardinal, who was accused of leaguings with the pope, deprived of his offices, and threatened with an impeachment. Wolsey's death of a broken heart put an end to his calamities, 1530; and Henry, in despite of papal injunctions, married Anne Boleyn 1533, after his separation by archbishop Cranmer from Catherine. The emperor having released Clement, that pope treated Henry's scruples in the manner he ought to have done at first; and Charles, incensed at Henry's repudiation of his aunt, in spite of all his attempts to prevent such an insult to his house, now sought how best he might punish the aggressor. Clement's excommunication of Henry having closely followed, the infuriated king at once broke with Rome, declared himself supreme head of the Church in England, and pronounced his daughter by Catherine illegitimate.

Thus began the *English Reformation*, but the monarch still adhered to the old faith; and while persecuting even to death such excellent characters as bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More for denying his supremacy, he not only displayed a rooted aversion to the Lutherans, but brought a great many of them to the stake for heresy. The rupture of Henry, therefore, with Rome, affected only church-government in temporal matters; and what we understand by the term Reformation, referring as it does to the change of religion from catholic to protestant, is by no means applicable to the schism which he originated. Henry cared not, so long as his concupiscent and

irascible passions were gratified, either for Romanists or reformers ; and the Church of England, which by God's providence alone sprung out of the ruin he effected, was begun by the able ministers of his son Edward, and completed by the able divines who flourished in the reign of his daughter, Elizabeth.

As Henry advanced in years, his temper grew more stern ; and his reign was at length that of a despot, who sacrificed without scruple every obstacle of his capricious will. As the monks and friars were necessarily the most direct advocates of papal authority, he suppressed the monasteries, and seizing their revenues, divided them between the crown and his courtiers, giving small pensions to the abbots ; he also ordered the Scriptures to be translated into English, though the gentry alone were permitted to read them. Tiring of his wife, Anne Boleyn, he listened to the reports of her indiscreet conduct in petty matters, and after sacrificing several who had been noticed by her, brought her also to the scaffold, 1536. On the day after her execution, he espoused Jane Seymour, presenting to the world a solecism in morals—a Christian king marrying another woman while the body of her, but lately, though in defiance of all religious and ethical law, the object of his dearest affections, and the wife of his bosom, was yet warm and quivering and reeking from the axe of the executioner, directed by his murderous will. There is nothing in the whole histories of Nebuchadnezzars, Alexanders, Herods, Neros, Attilas, Jenghizkhans, Nadirs, nay of savage nations, comparable in barbarity to this.

Henry now declared his daughter (Elizabeth) by Anne Boleyn illegitimate, as he had before declared her sister Mary ; and the utmost rigour was exercised towards the remaining catholic institutions. Stories were by royal authority propagated respecting the detestable lives of the friars ; the reliques of the monasteries were exposed to public ridicule ; and the shrine of Thomas-a-Becket, which had been an object of reverence for centuries, was pillaged by command, the bones of the saint burned, and the ashes scattered to the winds. The trial and death of Lambert followed, for denying the corporal presence, 1538 ; and soon after, a committee of parliament was employed in drawing up six articles of uniformity, which were formed into an act called 'the bloody bill,' in consequence of its severity against protestants.

Queen Jane Seymour died two days after giving birth to her son Edward, 1537. To the protestant party her decease was a great calamity, as she had secretly favoured the reformers ; and here it may be well to show, in confirmation of what we have before advanced, that the rupture with Rome had done nothing beyond opening a door for the Reformation. Although Cranmer was in the place of Wolsey, and, as it were, a half-formed protestant, the greater portion of the bishops were what even Henry himself called 'orthodox people.' Gardiner, in heart a staunch advocate for the hierarchy, was consulted by the king on most occasions, after queen Jane's death ; and though bishop Fox had sided with Cranmer, his decease had made way for the promotion of Bonner, a prelate similar in sentiments to Gardiner. Both these, it was believed, had given a secret promise to the pope and the emperor to preserve as much as possible the ancient faith and worship in England.

Henry took for his fourth wife, 1540, Anne, daughter of John, duke of Cleve ; but immediately after the marriage, he accused the Earl of Essex of treason for having proposed the match, put him to death, divorced his consort, and married Catherine Howard. As the Howard family were inimical to protestantism, the most determined persecution of the protestants followed ; and crowds were daily brought to the axe of such as had been only

supposed to deny the king's supremacy. It was no uncommon thing now to see a rigid catholic and a firm protestant tied together, and so brought to execution, for the one great offence: even the aged countess of Salisbury, the mother of cardinal Pole, and the only relique of the Plantagenets, was on this plea put to death, though it was but the tyrant's pretext to get rid of a member of the house his family had supplanted. Charges of infidelity were soon after brought against Catherine Howard; and she was summarily beheaded, 1542, and her uncle, the duke of Norfolk, and his son, the accomplished earl of Surrey, were sent to the Tower, simply because they were her relations. In the same year, Henry sent a force northwards, which put the Scots to flight near Solway, and, without a blow, made many of their nobles prisoners; a disaster which caused James V. to die of grief for his dishonour, leaving an only child, the yet more unfortunate Mary. The failure of Henry's negotiation to unite his son Edward to this heiress, through the intrigues of cardinal Beatoun, then primate of Scotland, and of Francis I. of France, produced a new war with both those countries, 1543; and Charles V. once more joined Henry against the latter. The Scottish contest consisted chiefly of mutual inroads and devastations, without any important issue; but the French war induced Henry to cross to Calais, 1544, at the head of 50,000 men, when, in conjunction with a force of Netherlanders, he took Boulogne. A desultory species of conflict continued until 1546, when peace was made with France, and Scotland, as its ally, was comprehended in the same; and Henry received from France by way of compensation scarcely a third of the large sum of 1,340,000*l.*, which the double war had cost him. Meanwhile the king had married, 1543, his sixth wife, Catherine Parr, widow of lord Latimer, who, soon after becoming queen, fell into danger of her life, as related in her brief memoir.

The king began now to feel his health decline: he had become immensely corpulent, and so extremely irritable, that no one either of his court or family dared to thwart him in any way. It was at this juncture that he put to death the earl of Surrey, for having quartered the royal arms with his own coat-armour; and he expressed a hope that he might not himself die before he had brought that nobleman's father also, the duke of Norfolk, to the scaffold. The latter was also formerly earl of Surrey, and the general whose skill and valour had gained the important victory of Flodden. The king's end, however, approached so rapidly, that he could not carry his blood-thirsty design into execution, although the parliament obsequiously passed sentence on the duke; but such was the dread of him even now in the hearts of his courtiers, that no one could readily be found bold enough to intimate to him his impending dissolution. Several during his tyrannical reign had undergone the punishment of traitors, for foretelling his death; all about his person, therefore, were afraid lest, when told of its immediate on-coming, he might, in the transports of his fury, give orders for the execution of the author of the intelligence. Cranmer and others absolutely refused to be messengers on the occasion; but at last Sir Anthony Denny took courage, and assured the monarch he had not long to live. To that knight's surprise, fear overcame him on receiving the information, and he desired that the archbishop might be sent for. Before Cranmer, however, could arrive, Henry became speechless, and the prelate was only in time to receive a pressure from his hand, in reply to his question 'if he died in the faith of Christ', before he expired, in his 57th year, January 28, 1547. His disorder was dropsy; and he had long dabbled in medical recipes, with the hope of curing himself, unaided by physicians. He was buried at Windsor, in a vault near the altar in St. George's chapel, near his queen Jane. In his will he restored his daughters to a place in the succession, in case of his son Edward's death without issue.

EVENTS.

THE RUPTURE WITH ROME.—The abolition of papal power in England by Henry was effected 1533, and thus the foundation of the English Reformation was laid. But when the clergy in convocation at Canterbury were called to acknowledge the king supreme head of the church and clergy of England, they unequivocally refused compliance, save on the condition of being allowed to qualify their assent. They agreed to own him '*singularem protectorem et unicum et supremum dominum, et quantum per Christi legem licet, etiam supremum caput*;' and thus alone 'as far as the law of Christ allowed' did they acknowledge his supremacy, denying his right to interfere with the spiritual jurisdiction of bishops, or with any of the laws, liberties, doctrines, or rites of the Church Catholic. The supremacy therefore was understood to apply to temporals alone; and the assembling of convocations and confirmation of their laws, the appointment of bishops and abbots, and the cognizance of causes in criminal matters, were the powers consequently vested in the regal office, as contra-distinguished from those exercised by the priestly.

THE SIX ARTICLES.—A new parliament being opened 1539, the chancellor told the lords that as it was his majesty's earnest desire to extirpate from his kingdom all diversity of opinions with regard to religion, he called on them to frame certain articles, to which all men should adhere. The result was the bill of the Six Articles, or, as the protestants called it 'the bloody bill,' which Henry joyfully signed; a measure which abundantly shows how little the king intended the nation to gain by being placed under pope Henry, instead of pope Clement. In this law the doctrine of the corporal presence was established, the communion in one kind, the perpetual obligation of vows of chastity, the utility of private masses, the celibacy of the clergy, the necessity of auricular confession.

A denial of the corporal presence subjected the person to death by fire, and admitted not the privilege of abjuring—a severity unknown to the Inquisition itself; a denial of any of the other five articles, even though recanted, was punishable by the forfeiture of goods and chattels, and imprisonment during the king's pleasure: an obstinate adherence to error, or a relapse, was to be punishable with death. Abstaining from confession, or from the eucharist at the accustomed times, subjected the person to fine and imprisonment during the king's pleasure—and to death and forfeiture, in case of a relapse after conviction. The Six Articles proving a bar to the changes intended by such bishops as were inclined to the Reformation, a convocation (summoned by royal mandate 1543,) drew up fresh directions, which were published in a book entitled '*The Necessary Doctrine or Erudition*;' and this work, whose object will be found under '*Seventeenth Century of the Church*,' was of authority in the English church during the remainder of Henry's reign.

THE SIX ROYAL MARRIAGES.—The first wife of Henry was CATHERINE OF ARAGON, youngest daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, born 1483. In 1501, she was betrothed, and betrothed only, to Arthur, son of Henry VII., who dying in five months after the contract, the king, with his usual avarice, rather than return her dower, betrothed her (æt. 19) to his second son Henry (æt. 10); and pope Julius II. granted a dispensation for the purpose, 1503. In 1505, the young Henry, then 14, made a public protest against the marriage, not much caring for a bride so much older than himself; but, taking the advice of his council at his accession, 1509, he ratified the contract by marrying her, and was crowned with her by archbishop Warham. In the next year she brought him a son, who died in three months, and in 1516 a daughter, Mary, afterwards queen. Nothing but the fine tem-

per, and finer tact of the princess could have enabled her to retain an ascendancy for 20 years over so capricious a man as Henry; and when at length he had, on the pretext of being horrified at the notion of living with one who had been the wife of his brother, sought for a divorce, nothing could be more dignified and correct than her whole conduct. Though all gentleness and meekness, she declared it her firm resolve not to consent to an act which would render her daughter illegitimate, and stain herself with the imputation of incest. Being cited, together with her husband, before the papal legates, cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio, 1529, she appeared in court. The king answered to his name when called; but Catherine, instead of doing so, rose from her seat, and throwing herself at Henry's feet, made to him an appeal, which her virtue, dignity, and misfortunes rendered deeply affecting. She told him she was a stranger in his dominions, without protection, without council, without aid; that she had quitted her native Spain, without any resource but in his family; that she had been his wife during 20 years, and would ask himself if her affectionate submission to his will had not merited other treatment than to be thus thrown from him with disdain; and, lastly, that he should remember, in order to be relieved from his religious scruples, that she had been but the betrothed bride, and never, as he well knew, the real wife of his brother, the prince of Wales.' Having spoken these words, she rose, mildly denied the authority of the court, bowed respectfully to the king, and retired. Henry, on seeing her depart, could not resist acknowledging she had ever been a dutiful and affectionate wife, and that the whole tenour of her life had been conformable to the strictest rules of propriety, probity, and honour. He was yet unseared enough in conscience to speak thus. But that was all: he objected not, when the court pronounced her contumacious, nor when

it was alleged she had been really the wife of his brother. The matter being referred once more to the pope, Clement, dreading the emperor's vengeance if he decided against his aunt, delayed replying, until Henry, losing all patience, threw off his submission to the court of Rome, directed Cranmer, now primate, to pronounce a divorce, and married Anne Boleyn, the final cause of so much contest. Catherine, no longer regarded as queen, but simply as princess of Wales, was required by Henry to remove to his palace of Amptill, Bedfordshire, whence she soon after retired, to end her days, to Kimbolton Castle, Huntingdonshire, still maintaining her title of queen, which she would never consent to relinquish. A little before she expired, she wrote a pathetic letter to the king, wherein she styled him 'her most dear lord, king, and husband.' She told him, 'that as the hour of her death was now approaching, she laid hold of this last opportunity to inculcate on him the importance of his religious duties, and the comparative emptiness of all human grandeur and enjoyment; that though his fondness towards those perishing advantages had thrown her into many calamities, as well as created to himself much trouble, she yet forgave him all injuries, and hoped that this pardon would be ratified in heaven; and that she had no other request to make but to recommend to him his daughter, the sole pledge of their loves, and to crave his protection for her maids and servants,' concluding with these words: 'I make this vow, that mine eyes desire you above all things.' The king was touched, even to the shedding of tears, by this last tender proof of her affection; but queen Anne expressed her unfeigned joy, and that in terms which neither decency nor humanity allow at the death of a rival. Catherine's death occurred in her 54th year, 1536, four years after her divorce.

ANNE BOLEYN, Henry's second queen, was daughter of Sir Thomas Boleyn (afterwards earl of Wilt-

shire), of Hever Castle, Kent, where she was born, 1507. When only seven, she attended the princess Mary to France, on her marriage with Louis XII.; and was so highly esteemed in that court, that when Mary returned a queen dowager to England, Anne Boleyn remained there under the protection of Claude, wife to Francis I. On her return to England in 1527, she was appointed maid of honour to Catherine; soon after which an engagement was nearly completed to marry her to lord Percy, son of the earl of Northumberland, but which Wolsey was directed by the king to annul. In 1528, the king began to notice Anne by frequent visits to Sir Thomas at Hever; and the room is still shown in the remnant of that castle (late the property of Miss Waldo of Clapham), wherein many a 'tender interview' between Anne and her royal lover passed. It was in 1532 that Henry created her marchioness of Pembroke, as a step to the marriage which took place in January of the next year. In June 1533 she was crowned with circumstances of unusual pomp; and in the September following gave birth to her daughter Elizabeth. In 1536, soon after Catherine's death, she was delivered of a dead son, a circumstance which operated against her in the capricious mind of Henry; and it was not long before opportunities were afforded him, by Anne's incautious conduct, to display his change of affection. The wife of Anne's brother, Lord Rochford, a woman of no virtue herself, either felt or affected to be jealous of the intimacy between her husband and his sister, and possessed the king with her own apprehensions. She also pretended that the queen was improperly familiar with Henry Norris, groom of the stole, with William Brereton, and Sir Francis Weston, of the king's privy-chamber; and with Mark Smeaton, a musician. These several accusations, but especially his having already become enamoured of Jane Seymour, Anne's

maid of honour, determined Henry to get rid of Anne; and when, at a tournament held soon after at Greenwich, the queen happened to drop her handkerchief, he declared to some persons about him, 'she only did it for some favourite to pick it up and wipe his face with,' and instantly retired from the place. Orders were immediately issued to confine the queen to her chamber; and Norris, Brereton, Weston, and Smeaton, together with the queen's brother, Rochford, were seized and sent to prison. Anne at first thought her capricious consort meant only to prove her; but when on her way to the tower next morning she was informed of her supposed offences, she made earnest protestations of her innocence, and having entered the prison, fell on her knees, and prayed to God so to help her, as she was not guilty of the crimes imputed to her. Her surprise and confusion then threw her into hysterics; and on her recovery, thinking the best proof of innocence was to make an entire confession, she revealed some indiscretions and levities, which her simplicity had equally betrayed her to commit, as it did now to avow them. She owned 'she had once rallied Norris on his delaying his marriage, and had told him that he probably expected her when she should be a widow. She had reproved Weston for his affection to a kinswoman of her's, and his indifference towards his wife; but he told her that she had mistaken the object of his attachment, for it was herself; upon which she defied him.' She affirmed 'that Smeaton had never been in her chamber but twice, when he played upon the harpsichord; but she acknowledged he had once had the boldness to tell her that a look sufficed him.' The king, instead of being satisfied with the candour and sincerity of such explanations, pretended to regard these indiscretions only as preludes to greater and more criminal intimacies; and Anne, deserted even by her uncle the duke of

Norfolk, found Cranmer alone inclined to moderate, if possible, the violent prejudices entertained against her. Remembering the manner in which the king had been affected by his former queen's last letter, she ventured upon a similar appeal; and the following are some of its passages. 'To speak a truth, never prince had wife more loyal in all duty, and in all true affection, than Anne Boleyn; with which name and place I could willingly have contented myself, if God and your grace's pleasure had been so pleased. Neither did I at any time so far forget myself in my exaltation or received queenship, but that I always looked for such an alteration as I now find; for the ground of my preferment being on no surer foundation than your grace's fancy, the least alteration I knew was fit and sufficient to draw that fancy to some other object. My last and only request shall be, that myself may only bear the burden of your grace's displeasure, and that it may not touch the souls of those poor gentlemen who (as I understand) are likewise in strait imprisonment for my sake. If ever I have found favour in your sight, if ever the name of Anne Boleyn hath been pleasing in your ears, then let me obtain this request; and I will so leave to trouble your grace any further, with mine earnest prayers to the Trinity to have your grace in his good keeping, and to direct you in all your actions.' This letter, however, had no influence on the hardened heart of Henry, now bent on his marriage with Jane Seymour; and the trials of Norris, Brereton, Weston, and Smeaton having terminated May 12, 1536 with their execution, May 19th was fixed for the death of the queen and her brother, lord Rochford, on the monstrous and equally absurd charge of an incestuous intercourse. The latter was beheaded first; and Anne, sending early in the morning for Kingstone, lieutenant of the Tower, said, 'Mr. Kingstone, I hear I am not to die till noon, and I am

sorry for it; for I thought to be dead before that time, and free from a life of pain.' The keeper attempting to comfort her by observing that the suffering would be little, she replied, 'I have heard the executioner is very expert; and (clasping her neck with her hands, smiling) I have but a little neck!' When upon the scaffold, from a consideration of the welfare of Elizabeth, her child, she refrained from speaking against her enemies, and contented herself with saying she was innocent, but had come to die according to the law. She prayed heartily for the king, calling him 'a merciful and gentle prince'; and after some encomiums on his former kindness to her, laid her head upon the block. The expert executioner of Calais decapitated her at one blow; and her corpse, being thrown into a common chest made to hold arrows, was interred in the Tower, without any funeral ceremony whatever.

JANE SEYMOUR was daughter of Sir John Seymour, constable of Bristol Castle, and was maid of honour to Anne Boleyn when Henry fell in love with her. She had then all the charms of youth and beauty; and her disposition was tempered between the dignified gravity of Catherine, and the gaiety and levity of Anne. On the very day after putting Anne to death did the brutal monarch marry Jane, May 20, 1536; and the parliament soon after, wholly directed by Henry, passed an act to settle the crown, after the king's death, on such of her issue as he should appoint in his will. On Oct. 12, 1537, she gave birth to a son (Edward VI.), to the great joy of her husband, 'so great indeed that (an old historian quaintly observes) the king's affliction for queen Jane's death two days after was drowned therein.' Jane's untimely death occurred in her 23rd year.

ANNE OF CLEVE, the fourth wife of Henry, was daughter of John III., duke of Cleve, now Westphalia, one of the princes of the league of Smal-

cald ; and her portrait, by Holbein, having been shown by lord Cromwell to Henry, he demanded her for his queen, 1539. He had, in the interval between the death of Jane and that period, solicited the hand of the princess of Parma ; but that lady returned for answer, 'that she was much obliged to the king for his compliment, and if she had *two* heads, *one* of them should have been at his service ; but as she had but one, she could not spare it.' By an alliance with the duke of Cleve, the king hoped to be able to annoy his rival Charles V. and the papal party, and Cromwell urged him towards it, on the ground that Sybilla, the duke's sister, was the wife of the elector of Saxony, at that time the head of the protestant confederacy ; so that when the princess had landed in England, Henry, highly impatient to reconnoitre his bride, came privately to Rochester, and got sight of her. He found her large to bulkiness, tall, and utterly devoid both of beauty and grace ; in a word, very unlike the pictures and representations which he had received of her. His choler hereupon rising, he called her, with his accustomed coarseness, 'a great Flanders mare,' and declared that he never could bear her any affection. The matter was worse when he discovered she could speak no language but Dutch, of which he was entirely ignorant ; and he returned to his palace at Greenwich melancholy enough, and not a little infuriated against Cromwell. Finding, however, that he had gone too far to retract, he disguised his discontent, and in a few days told that earl, 'since matters were so, he must put his neck into the yoke.' On the day after the marriage (Jan. 6, 1540), the king sent for Cromwell, and said 'he hated his new queen, she was loathsome, and that he was resolved never to go near her more ; and though he thenceforward treated her civilly, he never slept with her again. As a thing of certainty, some great outburst would occur after this in such a mind as Henry's, at the mo-

ment that the proper touchstone should be applied ; and he had no sooner cast his affections on Catherine Howard, niece of the duke of Norfolk, than Cromwell was accused of high treason by a parliament which had a few days before declared him 'worthy to be vicar-general of the universe.' A divorce from Anne was granted, seven months after the marriage, Aug. 1st ; but that princess was blest with a happy insensibility of temper, even in points which most nearly affect her sex ; and the king's aversion from her, as well as his prosecution of the divorce, never gave her the least uneasiness. She willingly hearkened to terms of composition ; and when Henry offered to give her place next the queen and his own daughter, and to make a settlement of 3,000*l.* a year upon her, she gave her consent to the divorce. She even wrote to her brother (for her father was dead) that she had been very well used in England ; and desired him to live on good terms with the king. The only instance of pride which she betrayed was, that she refused to return into her own country after the affront which she had received ; and taking up her abode in Hever Castle, now a royal estate, she died there 1557.

CATHERINE HOWARD, the fifth wife of Henry, may be regarded as his spouse of retribution ; the one who, in a measure, retaliated upon him a portion of the injuries he had inflicted on his former consorts. Though of a noble race, she had been from her youth singularly vicious ; a circumstance of course unknown to Henry when he married her, Aug. 8, 1540. The king had mentioned to several of the lords his unbounded satisfaction in Catherine, when archbishop Cranmer was called upon by a man of low grade, named Lascelles, to listen to his detail of sundry disgusting circumstances of the queen's life, while she was under education in the family of the old duchess of Norfolk. The prelate, struck with the intelligence, which it was equally dangerous to conceal and to discover,

was at length induced to write a narrative of the facts, and so convey them to the king's knowledge. Henry declared the whole to be a forgery—perhaps of Cranmer himself—and the primate found himself at once in a most perilous situation. The king's impatience, however, luckily for Cranmer, prompted him to search the affair to the bottom; and the issue was his conviction of not only the vicious propensities of the queen, but of her positive infidelity since her elevation. He burst into an agony of tears when the full discovery had been made, and, as may be imagined, put no bounds to his threats and denunciations. His submissive parliament entreated him, by addresses, to keep himself calm 'for his health's sake,' while they concocted a plan of vengeance which they should propose for his adoption; and they began by passing (under his secret direction) a bill of attainder for misprision of treason against the old duchess of Norfolk, Catherine's grandmother, her uncle, lord William Howard, and his lady, together with the countess of Bridgewater, and nine persons more—because they all knew the queen's vicious course of life before her marriage, and had concealed it. This was an effect of Henry's usual extravagance, to expect that parents should so far forget the ties of affection, and the sentiments of shame and decency, as to reveal to him the most secret disorders of their family. The main issue was that the queen was beheaded on Tower-hill, 1542, together with the infamous lady Rochford, who had occasioned the death of Anne Boleyn and her brother, her own husband: she had been proved the chief conductor of the queen's secret amours, and died pitied by no one.

CATHERINE PARR, the sixth and last of Henry's wives, was daughter of Sir Thomas Parr of Kendal, and was at an early age distinguished for her learning and good sense. She was first married to Edward Burgh, and secondly to John Neville, lord Latimer,

and became the wife of Henry 1543. Her zealous encouragement of the reformed religion excited the anger and jealousy of Gardiner, the chancellor Wriothesley, and others of the old faith; who, on hearing Henry himself complain of her proneness to argue on theological points which she did not understand, acquainted him that Anne Askew, who had recently suffered for denying the corporal presence, had been greatly influenced in her course by her instruction. The king upon this, hurried on as usual by his impetuous temper, ordered articles of impeachment to be drawn up against Catherine without delay; and Wriothesley, having executed his commands, and obtained his signature to the charge, accidentally dropped the document from his pocket, as he walked from the palace to his own residence. The important paper was happily picked up by some one friendly to the queen's cause; and when Catherine was made sensible of her danger, she despaired not of being able, by a little address, to elude the efforts of her enemies. She paid her usual visit to the king, and found him in a more serene disposition than she had reason to expect; but when he challenged her to an argument in divinity, she gently declined the conversation, observing 'that such profound speculations were ill-suited to the natural imbecility of her sex. Women (she said), by their first creation, were made subject to men; it belonged to the husband to choose principles for his wife; the wife's duty was, in all cases, to adopt implicitly the sentiments of her husband; and as to herself, it was doubly her duty, being blest with a husband so qualified by his judgment and learning, not only to choose principles for his own family, but for the most wise and knowing of every nation.' 'Not so, by St. Mary!' replied the king; 'you are now become a doctor, Kate, and better fitted to give than to receive instruction.' She meekly replied, 'that she was sensible how little she was entitled to these

praises ; that she had ventured sometimes to feign a contrariety of sentiments, in order to give him the pleasure of refuting her ; and that she also proposed, by this innocent artifice, to engage him on topics, whence she had reaped both amusement and instruction.' 'And is it so, sweet-heart ?' replied the king ; 'then we are perfect friends again.' He embraced her with great affection, and sent her away with assurances of his protection and kindness. Her enemies, who knew nothing of this sudden change, prepared next day to convey her to the Tower, pursuant to the king's warrant ; and Henry and Catherine were conversing amicably together in the garden, when the chancellor appeared, with 40 of the pursuivants. The king spoke to him at some distance from her, and seemed to expostulate with him in the severest manner ; Catherine even overheard the terms *knave*, *fool*, and *beast*, which he very liberally bestowed upon that magistrate, and then ordered him to depart his presence. When she afterwards interposed to mitigate his anger, he said to her, 'Poor soul ! you know not how little entitled that man is to your good offices !' Thenceforth the queen, having narrowly escaped so great a danger, was careful not to offend Henry's humour by any contradiction ; and Gardiner could never afterwards recover his favour and good opinion. Henry, at his death, 1547, left Catherine a legacy of 4000*l.* besides her jointure, 'for her great love, obedience, chasteness of life, and wisdom ;' and she afterwards married the lord admiral, Sir Thomas Seymour, uncle to Edward VI. But this connexion proved unhappy, and involved her in troubles and difficulties ; and she died in child-bed, not without suspicion of poison, 1548.

TRIAL OF LAMBERT, 1538.—Though king Henry had relinquished tenet after tenet of that theological system in which he had been educated, he was equally positive and dogmatical concerning the few articles which remained to him ; and as each change

occurred in his own creed, he thought himself entitled to regulate thereby the faith of the whole nation. The point on which, throughout the whole contest, he chiefly rested his orthodoxy, was the *real presence* ; all departure from this principle he held to be heretical and detestable ; and though transubstantiation, which it involved, has been regarded as a chief protestant ground for separating from the Church in unity, Henry held it as the most essential article of the faith. There was one Lambert, a schoolmaster in London, who persisted, notwithstanding the king's decrees on the subject, to oppose the tenet ; and being accused to Cranmer and Latimer, those prelates, who then held the doctrine of the corporal presence, endeavoured to make him recant his heresy. Lambert, however, having appealed from them to the king, Henry, delighted at having a public opportunity of displaying his casuistry before his own bishops, cited the recusant to Westminster Hall ; where, sitting on the throne, he ordered the bishop of Chichester to begin the conference. When that prelate had declared that the king, notwithstanding any slight alterations he had made in the rites of the Church, was yet determined to maintain the purity of the Catholic faith, and to punish, with the utmost severity, all departure from it, Henry, instead of listening to the man's defence, pressed him with arguments drawn from Scripture and the schoolmen ; Cranmer seconded his proofs by some new topics ; Gardiner entered the lists as a support to Cranmer ; Tonstal took up the argument after Gardiner ; Stokesley brought fresh aid to Tonstal ; six bishops more appeared successively in the field after Stokesley ; and the disputation, if it deserves the name, was prolonged for five hours, till Lambert, fatigued, confounded, brow-beaten, and abashed, was at last reduced to silence. The king then, returning to the charge, asked him whether he was convinced ? and he proposed, as a concluding argu-

ment, this interesting question, 'Whether he was resolved to live or die?' Lambert replying that he cast himself wholly on the king's clemency, Henry told him that he would not be the protector of heretics; and therefore, if that was his final answer, he must expect to be committed to the flames. Cromwell, as vicegerent, read the sentence against him. Lambert was by no means daunted by the terrors of the punishment which awaited him. His executioners took care to make the sufferings of a man who had personally opposed the king, as cruel as possible; he was burned at a slow fire; his legs and thighs were consumed to the stumps; and when there appeared no end of his torments, some of the guards, more merciful than the rest, lifted him on their halberds, and threw him into the flames, where he was consumed. While they were employed in this friendly office, he cried aloud several times, 'None but Christ! None but Christ!' and those words were in his mouth when he expired.

TRIAL OF ANNE ASKEW.—This victim of the cruel spirit of persecution which pervaded all parties at the opening of the Reformation, was the daughter of Sir William Askew of Kelsey. Having become a convert to protestant notions respecting the eucharist, her husband, Mr. Kyme, turned her out of doors; on which, coming from Lincolnshire to London, she sued privately to queen Catherine Parr for her interest towards a divorce. By her husband's direction, however, she was pursued, and accused to the lord mayor and others of holding dangerous opinions, and in the end committed to the Tower. The encouragement she had received from Catherine being the chief ground of Henry's severe conduct to the queen, it was fortunate that the torture which Anne was now made to undergo, could not induce her to inculpate that princess; and Wriothesley, the chancellor, has devoted his name to eternal execration by applying his own hands to the rack, when

the lieutenant of the Tower refused to strain it with more violence. By this atrocious act of unmanly rage, all the limbs of the innocent victim were dislocated; yet she maintained her heroic fidelity, and when recovered from her swoon, sat for two hours calmly reasoning with her persecutors. Pardon was afterwards offered if she would recant; but she steadily rejected every offer of the kind, and was in consequence condemned to the stake, which punishment she endured with extraordinary courage and constancy, July 16, 1546.

LAND LETTING.—Lands were let in England (pasture and arable) at 1*s.* per acre commonly, after the dissolution of the monasteries, 1535. The average highest *price* of land, in any county of England, by a recent estimation (1839), is shown to be in Middlesex 38*s.* 8½*d.* per acre; then Leicestershire 27*s.* 2½*d.*; and the average lowest, Cumberland 9*s.* 7½*d.*; then Hants and Sussex, 11*s.* 5*d.* But in assessing taxes on the land, these prices are wholly disregarded; since in the survey of William IV., land in Surrey, averaged at 15*s.* 2½*d.*, is rated commonly at 4*l.* per acre. The landed proprietors of England and Wales in 1839 (in which latter country the average price is 6*s.* 8*d.* throughout) amounted to 200,000, and the total rental of land to 30 millions, exclusive of house-rent in large cities and towns, such as London and Liverpool. The average income, however, of landed proprietors is but 150*l.* per year. The fundholders of the whole kingdom, in the Bank of England books, amount to 280,000.

SUPPRESSION OF THE MONASTERIES.—This wholesale spoliation and robbery of Henry VIII. began 1535, and was in the spirit of that love of lucre which had prompted his parent to commute every crime for money. Swayed by the same 'auri sacra fames,' he hastened Wolsey's fall, to seize his gold cupboard of plate, and his costly furniture at Whitehall; and whether the sanctified vessels of the temple, or the hoards of 'drunken

lords and pampered city, all were alike his prey. By an act passed 1535, all monasteries, priories, and other religious houses of monks, canons, and nuns, of whatever habit, rule, or order, not having lands, rents, or other hereditaments above the value of 200*l.* per annum, and all their manors and lands, were given to the king and his heirs for ever. This act and those which followed it did not affect ecclesiastical bodies or persons, simply as such; that is, they did not affect the *secular clergy*, such as archbishops, bishops, deans and chapters, prebendaries, archdeacons, parsons, and vicars; but only the *regular clergy*, to whose houses within the realm they wholly put an end. The regular clergy, or *Regulars*, were those who, having vowed obedience, chastity, and poverty, had entered some house of religion, and there professed; having become thus *dead* in a civil sense,—dead to the world. Indeed such civil death was the ground of the legal phrase, 'a natural life,' in contradistinction to a civil life; it being customary for all, before becoming regulars, to make their wills, being dead in the law by their 'entrance into religion,' as it was termed; and their sons or nearest of kin thereupon inherited their worldly goods. A lease being often made to a man for the life of another person, and that other person becoming a monk, and thereby causing the lease to determine, it became necessary to make such a lease for the *natural life* of any person, on the continuance of whose life the lease was to depend. By the act of 1535, 10,000 English friars and nuns were driven from their places of seclusion, and left, in a majority of instances, without the means of support; a most cruel, and tyrannical proceeding—since it was on the public faith they relied for the continuance of the support they sought, when they relinquished their worldly goods on closing their civil lives.

THE MARRIAGE ACT.—The first important act upon this all-important

subject passed 1540 (82 Henry VIII.), in the reign of a sovereign who seems to have made light enough of all marriage enactments. The English law, from the moment of throwing off the papal yoke, considered marriage no longer as a sacrament, but simply as a civil contract; the holiness of the matrimonial state being left entirely to the ecclesiastical law, to which it still pertains to punish unscriptural marriages. There is a well-known table, beginning with the memorable injunction, 'that a man may not marry his grandmother,' which contains all the prohibited degrees; but this, leaving out first cousins, and not second cousins, has given rise to a notion that first cousins may marry, while second cousins, who are a further remove, may not. The fact is that the document in question confounds the civil and the canon law together; by the former, both first and second cousins are allowed to marry; but by the latter they are both prohibited. When therefore a marriage between cousins takes place, it is capable of being annulled by canon law; but the civil law, which the act of Henry originated, being more regarded, such contracts are rarely questioned. How far the fair women of England may have a chance of entering into the estate of matrimony, which we think, on every account, ought to be regarded more as a religious tie than a civil engagement, the following table, drawn up with extreme care, after the experience of a series of years, is intended to show. If we take 100 to represent the whole of the lady's chances of marriage between the ages of 15 and 70, the proportional chances in each period of five years will be as follows: 15 and under 20, 14½; 20—25, 52; 25—30, 18; 30—35, 6½; 35—40, 8½; 40—45, 2½; 45—50, 1½; 50—55, ¾; 55—60, ¼; 60—70 one-tenth. From this it appears, therefore, first, that one-seventh of all the females who marry in England are married between 15 and 20; that is, one-seventh part of a woman's chances

of marriage lies between those years. Secondly, that fully one-half of all the women who marry are married between 20 and 25; or one-half of a woman's chances are comprised within those five years. Thirdly, that between 15 and 25, precisely two-thirds of a woman's chances are exhausted, and only one-third remains for the rest of her life till 70.

THE COUNCIL OF TRENT BEGAN 1545, and lasted 18 years. It was opened by Paul III., and closed by Pius IV. 1563; and its object was to correct, illustrate, and fix with precision and perspicuity, the doctrine of the Church, to restore the vigour of its discipline, and to reform the lives of its ministers. Its decrees, together with the creed of Pius IV. (which is only a summary of those decrees), form the present rule of faith of the Roman church. From the latter circumstance, the Roman Catholics are often called *Tridentines*, as followers of the Trent decrees. Trent, the ancient Tridentum, is in the Austrian dominion of Lombardy.

FOUNDATION OF THE JESUITS.—Ignatius (Inigo) Loyola, a Biscayan of noble birth, entered the army of Charles V., and was wounded at Pampeluna, during a siege of that place by the French and Navarrese. His long consequent confinement induced him to reflect upon the thoughtlessness and errors of his early life; and he resolved, if he recovered, to devote the remainder of his days to piety and religious labour. He at length conceived the plan of establishing an order, which should be devoted to the four following objects: the education of youth; preaching, and otherwise instructing grown-up people; defending the Catholic faith against heretics and unbelievers; and propagating Christianity among the heathen. Having begun to attract attention by inveighing against the loose morality of the times, he fell under the suspicions of the Inquisition, and was imprisoned, but afterwards released. He then undertook

several pilgrimages, and at last repaired to Paris, where he took holy orders. It was at Paris, in 1534, that six of his friends entered into a solemn compact to promote his object; and three more companions being added, the ten repaired to Rome, 1537, and laid the project before pope Paul III. Loyola, having been a soldier, had based his rules upon the principle of a strict subordination, carried through several gradations, terminating with the 'præpositus generalis,' who was to have absolute sway for life over the whole society, and from whose decisions there was to be no appeal. This general was to be subject to the pope only. Most of the old monastic orders had a considerable share of democracy in their institutions: they assembled in chapters, and elected their local superiors; and those superiors were mostly changed every three years. But Loyola's projected order was strictly monarchical, and therefore adapted to be a more effective support of the Roman see, at a time when support was most wanted, in consequence of the spread of the Wicliffite and Lutheran tenets. Besides this, the wealthier of the monastic orders, such as the Benedictines, employed their leisure in scientific and speculative studies, living retired, and knowing little of political affairs; while the mendicants, or friars, had degenerated from their first zeal, had become obnoxious by the sale of indulgences, and were despised for their ignorance, corruption, and vulgarity. The prelates of the court of Rome, such as Bembo, and Leo X. himself, spoke with open scorn of the latter, and called them hypocrites. Paul, approving the plan, issued a bull, 1540, for the establishment of the new order by the title of *The Society of Jesus*; and it was ordained that the members (since called *Jesuits*) should wear no monkish garb, but dress in black like the secular clergy, and that they should not be obliged to keep canonical hours in the choir like other monks,

in order that they might have more leisure for study or business. A hair-shirt was to be worn next the skin by every member; but this and other austerities were to be considered under the regulation of the founder. Loyola died 1556, at which period his followers had augmented to 10,000; and under his successor, the general Lainez, a man of extraordinary ability and energy, their increase was surprisingly great.

THE HUGUENOTS are said by some to have been first so called in France, 1540. They were the Calvinist protestants of that country, and received their name from the German, *cignot*, confederate, originally applied to such Genevese as defended their rights against Charles, duke of Savoy. (See Vol. I. page 452.)

OVERTHROW OF THE MAMLUK POWER.—Selim I., having entered Egypt with a large force, 1517, defeated and killed Tomaun Bey, the Mamluk Borgite Soldan, or Schaich-el-belled, and taking himself that title, allowed the inferior Mamluk beys to act as his tributary governors of provinces. Motawakel, a descendant of the Abassides of Bagdad, was nominal khalif of Egypt at the moment of Selim's invasion; and him the sultan carried away to Constantinople, though after a while he suffered him to return to Cairo, where he died, 1538. With Motawakel expired (strictly speaking) the Saracen name. Thus the Mamluk power, founded 1250, and called Borgite, 1382, was in 1517 broken down by the Turks to a tributary form; and Egypt so continued to be ruled by Mamluks, in subjection to the Ottoman Porte, till the horrible massacre of the Beys by Mehemet Ali, 1811. Under the Borgite Mamluks had sprung up in Egypt a mendicant tribe of Moslems, pretending to the rank of prophets; and these, under the names of Santons, Fakirs, Calenders, Derwishes, &c., at length overspread Arabia, Persia, and Turkey. Though all professing poverty, and the com-

plete sacrifice of temporal interests, in order the more exclusively to devote themselves to spiritual matters, their influence in some parts of the East extended to the most important affairs of government; and Santons were frequently known to fill the chief offices in the state. When acting simply as prophets, they, to this day, live in tents or retired grottos, like hermits; and the ignorant Moslims steal away to consult them on all occasions of difficulty, paying them money for their advice. The Osmanlees consider the founder of the tribe to have been one Abdal, called Santone Kalenderi, who, in the time of Mohammed, always mentioned the name of God with the sound of his pipe, and with that music recreated himself day and night, not after a cheerful and merry humour, but with tears and sighs. 'He was,' say they, 'a deep philosopher, and indued with those supernatural virtues which enable men to work miracles.'

ORIGIN OF THE BUCCANEERS, 1526.—After the Spaniards had got possession of the chief part of South America, and of the West India Islands, they prohibited the settlement in those countries of all other nations; and indeed were so jealous of mere foreign visitors, that they would often fire at, capture, and plunder their single ships, that came for provisions, or water. An association was therefore entered into by certain sea-faring people of England and France, who were after a time joined by many Portuguese and Dutch, to effect forcible landings on the shores of the New World; which the influx of wealth into Spain had given them good reason to believe an Eldorado, where gold and other treasures were to be had for the fetching. Accordingly, in 1526, Thomas Tyson fitted out a privateer, as factor to an English company of merchants, and was accompanied by similar vessels of other nations; and the party having ravaged the coasts

of several West India islands, the Spaniards established, throughout their colonies, to defend themselves against such interlopers, what were termed *Guarda-costas*, the commander of which were instructed to massacre all foreigners that might fall into their hands. This tended to produce a close alliance among the mariners of all other nations ; and a permanent state of hostilities was thus established, in the West Indies especially, independently of peace or war at home. The members of the marine league thus formed, obtained the name of buccaneers, from the circumstance of the Caribs, or aboriginal inhabitants of some of the West India islands, calling meat, prepared with salt by themselves in a peculiar way, *boucan*, and which was the only food met with by the adventurers in their marauding expeditions. The French buccaneers, however, were termed *flibustiers*, being their own corruption of the word 'freebooters.' So many were the deeds of prowess of the buccaneers, and so great fame had they at length in Europe, that, in 1625, the French and English united, and seized first St. Kitts, and then Tortuga, islands which became the headquarters of the association ; and whenever either England or France was at war with Spain, the buccaneers of the hostile state obtained letters of marque from the mother country, and acted as regular privateers on the Spanish main. The latter custom gave a colour of legitimacy and honour to the buccaneers' calling, and confounded the notions of right and wrong in their ignorant minds ; and the first English governors of colonies, being somewhat roguish, allowed them to pursue their own course without molestation. The most renowned of all buccaneer chiefs was Henry Morgan, a Welshman, who actually forced his way across the isthmus of Darien, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, to plunder the rich city of Panama, 1670 ; and this exploit

having opened the way to the great southern seas, the buccaneers laid the foundation of much of our present geographical knowledge of that part of the world. Morgan effected his object : with 37 vessels, having on board 2000 men, he, after incredible hardships, crossed one of the wildest and most difficult countries on the face of the globe ; and having fought the Spaniards, and massacred 200 prisoners in cold blood (for he was a cruel fellow), he sacked Panama, and returned home laden with booty. The dexterous ruffian, however, contrived to trick most of the fleet out of their share of the spoils, and sailed for Jamaica, already an English colony ; and he had the address to obtain knighthood from Charles II., and the appointment of deputy-governor of Jamaica. After this, 1684, the skilful seaman, Dampier, acted as a buccaneer ; and of his expedition, which led him to explore the Pacific, from the coasts of Chili and Peru to those of China and Hindustan, he has left an interesting account. In 1670 Great Britain agreed to put down the buccaneer-system against Spain ; but a much more effectual relief was afforded the Spaniards, when the war broke out between England and France, on the accession of William III. The French flibustiers thereupon attacked their ancient allies, the English buccaneers ; and from that moment the parties visited upon each other some of the cruelties they had received in common from the Spaniards—and they never again confederated. At once Henry Morgan's magnificent project of establishing an independent buccaneer state in the islands of the Pacific vanished into air. The treaty of Ryswick, 1697, effected the final suppression of the pirates, many of whom turned planters ; while others, who had good sailing-ships, went in quest of adventures to other parts of the world, never to be heard of more.

GENOA MADE AN OLIGARCHY.—Andrea Doria, a Genoese admiral in

the French service, having undertaken to deliver his country from the yoke of France, a strong party aided him in surprising the French garrison, 1528; and the latter withdrew, without drawing a sword. A roll was instantly made out of all the distinguished families, both noble and plebeian, from among whom the doge, councillors, and other officers of state were to be chosen. This aristocracy, however, was not wholly closed and exclusive, like that of Venice; new families might be added to it at certain times, and with certain qualifications; and this form of rule continued until the invasion of Italy by Buonaparte.

DISCOVERY OF NEW GUINEA.—

In 1529, Saavedra, a Portuguese, discovered the north-west coast of what he supposed a single island, and called it Terra de Papuas; Van Schouten, a Dutchman, afterwards gave the name of New Guinea to its south-western part; and of late it has been found to be only one of a group of isles (itself the largest), which are now generally termed the Papuans. New Guinea was supposed to be connected with New Holland, until captain Cook discovered the strait that separates them. The group is still in the hands of the natives; and the isles are chiefly visited by the Malays and Chinese, for the purchase of birds of paradise, which are there very abundant, and which the natives kill, and having prepared the skin and feathers, sell them for good prices on the shore. This singularly beautiful bird is one of passage: it is shot when seeking its food, which is only at the rising and setting of the sun; as it remains hidden under the ample foliage of the teak-tree during the scorching heat of the day. From live specimens seen at Macao, it will live on rice; but it eats the cockroach and other beetles eagerly.

SEIZURE OF ALGIERS BY BARBAROSA.—On the expulsion of the Moors from Granada, they commenced a piratical life on the op-

posite coast; and well knowing each creek and inlet of the Spanish shore, continually carried off parties of their enemies into slavery. Cardinal Ximenes headed a force against them, and took Oran and Algiers; whereon the king of the latter applied for aid to Aronje Rásia, or red beard (barbarosa), the son of a Turkish potter, the most skilful corsair of his day. The barbarian, attacking Algiers with 5000 men, took it 1516, and having murdered the rightful prince, usurped the dominion. Although Ximenes attempted to dispossess him, his army was defeated, and his ships dispersed; and the pirate in the sequel possessed himself of all the neighbouring states. The troops of Charles V., however, killed him in battle 1518, but were never able to overthrow his brother and successor, Heyreddin; who scoured the Mediterranean, and, in a series of years, carried off thousands of Christians into slavery. From Barbarosa's time till the conquest by the French, 1830, Algiers always remained an independent state, ruled by a Dey (duke), though nominally subject to the grand seignior; and its people, to the time of the fall of their power, continued the piratical scourge of the Mediterranean, and yearly deprived many Christians of liberty. (*See Lord Esmonth's Expedition.*)

RISE OF THE ANABAPTISTS.—Thomas Munzer, who had been a disciple of Luther, began preaching at Wittenberg, Saxony, 1521, that infant baptism was an invention of the devil, that civil government was unwarrantable, and that a freedom of the faithful (meaning all who thought as he) from subjection to laws and taxes must be enforced. All things were to be in common, and no clothing was to be worn. At length the lowest rabble having joined the fanatic and his partisans, they rose in rebellion, to the number of 40,000, throughout Suabia, Thuringia, and Franconia, summoning all the princes of Germany to abdicate their thrones, and plundering the churches; and Munzer;

being taken prisoner by the landgrave of Hesse, was put to death at Mulhausen, 1526. A party of anabaptists next appeared in Munster, holding yet more absurd and equally dangerous doctrines; and to illustrate the law regarding apparel, one Boccoldt solemnly promenaded the streets of the city stark naked. The popes, however, by their severities, at length extirpated the sect, whose title of anabaptists (from the Greek) is supposed to have arisen from their re-baptizing such as entered among them, which the term implies. They did not sprinkle, but *immersed* their followers, and that only when of an adult age. (*See Baptists.*)

MEXICO A SPANISH COLONY, 1520. (*See Cortes.*)

RISE OF THE ANTINOMIANS.—Jolin Agricola, a native of Isleben in Saxony, taught, 1538, that the law is not necessary, now that the gospel has been promulgated; and that repentance is not to be preached from the decalogue, but from the gospel. As his opinions were calculated to supersede the necessity of good works

and a virtuous life, Luther warmly attacked them; and it was he who gave them the appellation of *antinomian*, or against the law. Much of the old antinomian error is now perceptible in those sects, in and out of the church of England, which maintain the possibility of faith existing and insuring salvation, without good works; and which hold that the elect, as children of grace, cannot sin. What is sin in the wicked is not sin in the elect. The English parliament, in the act against presbyterians, 1648, declared that any one guilty of antinomianism, or maintaining that the moral law of the ten commandments is no rule for Christians, or that a believer need not repent of sin, should publicly retract or be imprisoned. Agricola, of whose opinions there appear to have been exaggerated statements, was one of those employed to draw up the Interim; and catholic writers themselves allow him to have been orthodox on the article of justification. There are now no antinomians, simply distinguished as such.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER SELIM I.—Having deposed his father, Bayezid II., 1512, and supplanted his eldest brother, Ahmed, Selim was opposed by the latter in arms; but, after a severe contest, he captured and put him to death. The unnatural Moslim (though such practices were common at the period of accession, among the members of the regal Turkish family, up to very recent times,) then caused his brother, Kortschut, who was too popular on account of his patronage of learned men, to be strangled, and thereupon hurried off an immense force towards Persia, against Shah Ismail. His troops were defeated by Ismail, with the loss of 50,000 men, 1514; and two years elapsed before he could muster an army for an assault upon Egypt. In his progress thither, 1516, he made himself master of Syria, and in 1517 defeated and made prisoner Tomaun Bey, the Mamluk sultan, and converted Egypt

into a Turkish province, suffering it to be ruled in a tributary form by the inferior Mamluk chiefs. Elated with his success, he now contemplated an attack upon the Christian powers in Europe; but death put a stop to his projects at Cluri in Thrace, 1520, at 46, in the very place where he had fought against and dethroned his father. He was succeeded by his only son, SULZIMAN II., 'the Magnificent' (properly 'the Just'). He is considered the greatest emperor the Turks ever had, and certainly was their most famous conqueror. After reducing a revolt of the Mamluk beys of Egypt, and making a truce with Ismail of Persia, he turned his arms against Charles V. of Germany, and took Belgrade 1521. In 1522 he got possession of Rhodes, which had been in the hands of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem two centuries; and in 1526, defeated the Hungarians at Mohatz, in which battle Louis II.,

their king, perished in a morass. He took Buda 1529, and at length invested Vienna, but was obliged to raise the siege of that city. After a period of tranquillity, which extended many years, Suleiman attempted to take Malta, and spent much blood and money in that fruitless labour; but in 1565 he made himself master of Scio, which had been in the possession of the Genoese from 1346. He died in Hungary, at the siege of Zigeth, 1566, aged 76.

THE POPEDOM.—Giovanni de Medici, son of Lorenzo the Magnificent, gonfaloniere (chief magistrate) of the Florentine republic, succeeded Julius II. in the papal chair, 1513, as LEO X. He had been made a cardinal at the early age of 13, by Innocent VIII., and had shared exile from Florence with his brother, after the death of his father, 1492. Julius having employed him as legate in the army against the French, he was taken prisoner by the latter at Ravenna, 1512, but contrived to escape; and upon hearing that the new gonfaloniere, Soderini, had been expelled by the Florentines, he induced the Spanish troops, then in the pope's pay, to enter Florence, and restore his family to power. This was speedily effected, though not without bloodshed; and in three months after the cardinal had seen his brother Giuliano elected in Soderini's place, he was called to Rome by the death of Julius. On receiving the tiara, he commenced a pontificate which, though brief, forms one of the most memorable epochs in the history of modern Europe, comprehending as it did the outbreak of the reformation, the establishment of the Spaniards in Italy, and the sudden restoration of learning and the arts, through the very liberal patronage of Leo's own family in all its branches. Leo's coronation, at which he spent immense sums, took place on the same day in 1513 as that on which he had been taken prisoner the year before; and he passed in procession through Rome, riding the horse on which he had been captured. Northern Italy being at the moment

disturbed by the French invasion, Leo sent his secretary Bembo to the Venetians, to break their alliance with Louis XII. against the Milanese. The French, under La Trimouille, had just been driven out of the peninsula; and Louis, inclined to have the pope on his side, knew well how to gain him. Leo had just reopened the council of Lateran, which had begun under Julius II., for the extinction of the schism produced by the council of Pisa, convoked by Louis XII. to check the power of that pope. Circumstances were now changed: Louis XII. made his peace with Leo 1514, renounced the council of Pisa, and acknowledged that of Lateran. Louis XII. died 1515, without male issue; and his successor, Francis I., among his other titles, assumed that of duke of Milan, which was the signal of a new Italian war. The Venetians joined king Francis; and though the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Spain, the Swiss, and duke Sforza, united against him, Milan at length fell to the French by the victory of Marignano, 1515. After his success at Milan, Leo made proposals of alliance to Francis, conferring with him at Bologna; where the famous concordat was agreed on, regulating the appointment to the sees and livings in France, and which continued in force up to the French Revolution. In 1517 Leo authorised that sale of indulgences, which in the sequel occasioned the Reformation; but though he in two bulls anathematized Luther and his party, he was too much taken up with the affairs of Italy, to care about a remote controversy carried on in Saxony, the fatal consequences of which he evidently did not foresee. In 1518, a league of five years was proclaimed by Leo among the Christian princes, to oppose Selim I. of Turkey, who threatened Italy; for which purpose he yielded part of the revenues of the Church. Nothing, however, was done against the Moslems; and in 1521 Leo, distrusting Francis, entered secretly into al-

liance with Charles V., drove the French out of Milan, and restored Sforza. The news of the taking of Milan was celebrated at Rome with public rejoicings; but in the midst of them the pontiff was seized with an illness, which in less than a week terminated his existence, at the age of 46, December, 1521. Leo's great faults were a prodigal spirit, which induced him to waste immense sums upon pompous works and display, and to raise those sums by means not always creditable; a too great patronage of wit, even to buffoonery; and a spirit of nepotism, which tempted him, under various frivolous pretences, to deprive the duke of Urbino and other favourites of former popes, of their estates, that he might confer them on members of his own family. He was by no means negligent of business; and though fond of conviviality and ease, inasmuch that the papal court was never so lively, so agreeable, so intellectual, as under his sway, even his worst enemies have not substantiated any charge against his morals. The services he rendered literature are many: he set John Lascaris to encourage the study of Greek throughout his estates; restored the Roman university; drew around him a galaxy of men of talent; corresponded with Erasmus, Ariosto, Machiavelli; drew forth and employed the sublime artists Michael Angelo and Raffaele; and rendering, as he had done, Rome the centre of European civilization, he acquired for his nine years' period of rule the distinctive appellation of 'the Age of Leo X.' ADRIAN VI., a Netherlander by birth, succeeded, January 1522, through the interest of his quondam pupil, Charles V. He was an exceedingly pious person; but his ascetic habits, and his attempts to reform the papal court, were ill received after the splendid rule of Leo; and when he died, after a short pontificate, 1523, the people could not conceal their joy. CLEMENT VII. (Giulio de Medici), a cousin of Leo X., succeeded;

and his pontificate was full of calamities to Italy. He first allied himself with Francis I. against Charles V., in order to prevent the latter possessing himself of all Italy; but he only hastened the progress of the imperial arms, and saw Rome pillaged by the forces of Charles, and himself besieged in the castle of St. Angelo, 1527. Though he escaped in disguise, he was eventually captured; and having, during a consequent seven months' imprisonment, let his beard grow, he would never after suffer it to be cut off. He at length made peace with Charles, and united with him to destroy the independence of Florence, his native city. While a prisoner, Clement had received the application of Henry VIII. of England for a divorce from his queen Catherine, the aunt of his enemy; and hoping the English might aid him to escape, he affected to support the king's scruples. Now in alliance, however, with his former adversary, he boldly refused a dispensation to Henry; and the sequel was the abolition of papal supremacy in England, and Clement's excommunication of Henry and the English, 1533. Clement died 1534, and was succeeded by PAUL III. (Alexander Farnese), bishop of Ostia, and dean of the sacred college. Called upon to stay the progress of protestantism, he appointed a general council at Mantua, and at length removed it to Trent, where the first session opened, December, 1545. (*See Council of Trent, and Sixteenth Century of the Church.*) He joined Charles V. and the Venetians against the Turks, but without effect; and induced Francis I. and Charles to conclude a ten years' truce at Nice, 1538. Paul established the Inquisition, approved the Jesuits, condemned the Interim of Charles V., and used undisguised hostility towards Henry VIII.; but it is acknowledged that he offered to make very important concessions to the protestant party, rather than that the unity of the Church should be violated. The ingratitude of his

grandson Octavio (for Paul had married before ordination), son of the duke of Parma, is affirmed to have broken his heart, at the age of 82, 1550.

SCOTLAND UNDER JAMES V.—He succeeded his father, James IV., when 18 months old, 1513; and the duke of Albany was elected regent. A series of disputes instantly commenced between the regent and the earl of Angus, who had married the queen-mother Margaret, sister of our Henry VIII., and claimed equal authority on that account; and for 15 years the English and French, under their respective partisans, kept Scotland in a state bordering on anarchy. At length Angus carried off the young king to Jedburgh, whence Walter Scott boldly attempted to rescue him, though his design failed, as also did that of the earl of Lennox; and James by his own adroitness escaped from bondage, 1528. Reaching Stirling Castle, he summoned his nobles; and at the ensuing parliament, all the family of Douglas (Angus) were attainted, and compelled to leave the country. James, though only 17, had now the full authority of a king. He was inferior to no prince of his day in gracefulness of person, and he possessed a great but uncultivated spirit. His first act of foreign policy was to send a force to aid Francis I. against Charles V. What he had suffered from the exorbitant power of his own nobles during the regency of his minority, made him resolve above all things to humble their order; and as the loss of laymen at Flodden had increased the influence of the clergy, to them he looked for carrying his design into execution. Having before promoted Gavin Dunbar, his preceptor, to the see of Glasgow, he now advanced him to the dignity of chancellor, and erected under him the Court of Session, which was to have supreme and general jurisdiction. Beatoun, afterwards a cardinal, was made privy seal. James at the same time fortified anew the castles of Edinburgh and Stirling;

and having taken these precautions, began to treat the nobles with reserve. He suffered no opportunity of mortifying them to escape; their slight offences were aggravated into real crimes, and punished with severity. The nobles observed the tendency of his schemes with concern and resentment; but the king's sagacity, the vigilance of his ministers, and their own want of a proper leader, made it dangerous to concert any measures for their defence. At length James and his advisers, by one false step, gave them an advantage which they did not fail to improve. When Henry VIII., who expected an attack from the continental supporters of the pope, had arrived at York, 1534, with a view to confer with the king of Scotland on the best means of defending the two kingdoms, he was astonished to receive intelligence that James would not meet him; and with his usual impetuosity, he retired to raise an army, with which he soon returned to the borders of Scotland. Scarcity of provisions, and the rigour of the season, however, compelled him to turn back; and James thereupon ordered his nobles to pursue his troops. But they refused to cross the border; and James, provoked by the insult, disbanded his army, returned abruptly into the heart of his kingdom, and desired his unpopular favourite, Oliver Sinclair, to head a new force, levied at his command by the ministry. An universal mutiny of the army ensued; and 500 English attacking the Scots at Solway Moss when in this disorder, hatred to the king, and contempt of their general, produced on the latter an effect to which there is no parallel in history. Overcoming at once the fear of death and the love of liberty, 10,000 men surrendered to a number so far inferior, without striking a blow. No man was desirous of a victory which would have been agreeable to the king and his favourite; few endeavoured to save themselves by flight; the English had the choice of what

prisoners they pleased to take ; and almost every person of distinction who had engaged in the expedition, remained in their hands. The king was incapable of bearing these repeated insults ; and being unable to revenge them, his spirit sank altogether. The deepest melancholy and despair succeeded the furious transports of rage and indignation, which the first account of the rout of his army occasioned. All the violent passions which are the enemies of life preyed upon his mind, and wasted and consumed a youthful and vigorous constitution ; and he died soon after, 1542, leaving his only child, eventually the equally unhappy Mary Stuart, (then but eight days old) the heiress of his crown. He had been twice married ; first to Magdalen, daughter of Francis I., and lastly to Marie de Lorraine, widow of Louis of Orleans.

FRANCE UNDER FRANCIS I.—Francis I., 'le Grand,' succeeded his father-in-law, Louis XII., who died without issue, 1515. He was the only son of Charles of Orleans, count of Angoulême ; and soon after his coronation, he assumed the title of duke of Milan, and put himself at the head of a powerful army to make good his right to that duchy. The Swiss who defended the Milanese, gave him battle at Marignan, 1515, but were cut to pieces, 15,000 of them being left dead on the field ; and Francis became master of the territory. Leo X., terrified at his success, had a conference with Francis at Bologna, obtained from him the abolition of the pragmatic sanction, and there concluded the concordat. When Charles V. had been elected emperor, instead of himself, 1519, a jealousy was kindled between the two sovereigns ; and as our Henry VIII. was considered to have in his hands the balance of European power, each party applied to him for aid against the other. Charles visited England in person, threw himself into Henry's power, and flattered Wolsey ; but Francis, inviting the monarch to a

grand conference on the French soil, met him at Ardres, on 'the field of the cloth of gold.' Charles, however, eventually obtained the favour of Henry ; and the pope joining them against Francis, all the Italian conquests of the latter were wrested from him, and himself taken prisoner at Pavia. Francis was rigorously confined, and removed to Spain, where Charles resided ; but when, by a treaty at Madrid, he was at length released, on giving up his two sons as hostages, he re-entered his own dominions, mounted on a Turkish horse, and putting it to its speed, waved his hand, and cried aloud several times, 'I am yet a king !' Soon after, Francis combined with Clement VII., Henry VIII., and other powers, by what was called the Holy League, to force Charles to deliver up his sons ; whereon the emperor sent a large force into Italy, 1527, under Charles of Bourbon, constable of France, which, though the constable fell, sacked Rome with the most savage violence. Clement himself was made prisoner ; and such horrors were perpetrated by the soldiery on defenceless women and venerable prelates, as eclipsed the former barbarous deeds of Huns, and Goths, and Vandals. Francis, being thus again foiled, agreed to release his sons by concession ; and yielding Flanders and Artois, and paying two millions of crowns to Charles, 1529, he completed the treaty by marrying Eleanor, the emperor's sister. Yet, in 1535, he took Savoy, and in 1536, drove Charles out of Provence, and entered into an alliance with Suleiman II. of Turkey. Soon after he had concluded a ten years' truce with Charles, 1538, the latter, resolving to chastise the people of Ghent for their revolt, obtained a passage for his troops through France, on promising the king to bestow the duchy of Milan on which of his children he pleased ; but after having been received by Francis, 1539, with all possible respect, he no sooner arrived in Flanders, that he refused to keep his pro-

mise. This breach of faith rekindled the war, and the troops of Francis entered Italy; Gustavus Vasa and the pirate Barbarosa becoming his allies, while Charles had Henry VIII. on his side, who got possession of Boulogne, 1544. In that year Francis concluded a peace at Crespi with the emperor, and one with Henry in 1546, and died, aged 52, 1547. In reviewing the position of France during the whole struggle of Francis with the emperor, we see with astonishment the magnitude of the power against which the former had to contend. Francis was the only efficient hindrance to the universal monarchy of the house of Austria; and though a catholic, he fostered protestantism to carry out his plans. The revolt of Geneva from the duke of Savoy, whereby that city became a chief prop of the reformers, was his work. On the other hand, he was a cruel persecutor of heretics in Paris; and his private life is not entitled to much praise. Madame de Chateaubriand, the duchess d'Etampes, and la belle Féronière were successively his mistresses, and, with his mother, queen Louisa, the main rulers of the country. It was his remark 'that a drawing-room without women, was like the spring without flowers;' and in his reign, therefore, ladies, for the first time, became constant attendants at the French court, and the foundation was laid for those profligate manners, so fully developed in the succeeding reigns, and terminating only with the revolution of 1789. Though a libertine, Francis was the patron of learning and the arts. Erasmus, Lascaris, and Cellini, basked in his favour; and Leonardo da Vinci died in his arms.

DENMARK, &c. UNDER CHRISTIERN II.—This prince, called the Nero of the North, ascended the throne after his father, John I., 1513; and his first attempt, though unsuccessful, was to recover Greenland, which his predecessors had lost. He next tried to crush the factious spirit of the Swedes, who, in their hatred of the union of

Calmar, would still only acknowledge Steno, 'the administrator,' as their chief; but he was obliged to raise the siege of Stockholm, after investing it 1518, through the outbreak of an epidemic among his men, himself being in danger of perishing. Unable, however, to march away, Christiern sent to propose a truce with the administrator, which he said might be improved into an eternal peace; and Steno, though he knew he might easily complete his victory by starving the enemy, generously sent them boats laden with provisions. Finding the Swedes desirous of making terms, Christiern, who had now recovered his strength, atrociously planned a seizure of the administrator's person; and pretending to be overcome by his generosity, proposed an interview with him on board the fleet. As the senate, however, would not permit Steno thus to hazard his safety, Christiern offered to repair to Stockholm with some of his council; provided Gustavus and six other lords were delivered as hostages for the security of his person. To this the senate assented; but Gustavus and the other hostages no sooner appeared on the shore, than they were surrounded by soldiers in the disguise of mariners, and conveyed on board the fleet, under arrest. Steno, incensed at such barefaced treachery, manned all the ships in the harbour, resolving either to release the hostages, or perish in the attempt; but the wind suddenly changing, the Danish fleet set sail, and escaped to Denmark. In 1519, Otho, the Danish general, invaded Sweden with a powerful force, and slew Steno in a pitched battle; and the issue was that in 1520 Christiern passed to Stockholm and was crowned there, on which occasion he swore to preserve inviolate the laws, privileges, and customs of the nation. But on the third day after the coronation, the archbishop of Upsal, accompanied by certain Danish lords, by the king's desire, appeared before him in a full meeting of the States, and demanded justice against the deceased adminis-

trator and his adherents ; on which the senators, bishops, and all the Swedish lords and gentlemen that were in the castle, were arrested. On the 8th of November, these illustrious victims were marched out in dismal pomp, and executed. The bishops suffered first, afterwards Eric, Gustavus's father, then the consuls and magistrates of Stockholm, and lastly 94 lords. The city was given up to the fury of the Danish soldiers, who, after murdering all that came in their way, broke into the principal houses, under the pretence of searching for Gustavus (who had escaped) and the rest of the proscribed lords. Having seized the treasures of Steno's widow, and sent her to Denmark, Christiern, after setting a price upon the head of Gustavus, returned to Copenhagen. His grand effort now was to thwart the designs of that injured noble, who soon had a formidable party in his favour in Sweden. In order to raise money for new levies, Christiern taxed the Danes with his accustomed indifference to justice ; and unpopular as he had become by his cruelties at Stockholm, as well as by his abrogation of the privileges of the nobles, a conspiracy was soon formed to induce the king's uncle, the duke of Holstein, to accept the crown. The king, on ascertaining the fact, saved himself by flight, 1523 ; and Frederick, duke of Holstein, his uncle, was declared sovereign of Denmark. Christiern's place of refuge was Germany, where he remained till 1531, and then sailed from Holland, with 10,000 men of different nations, for the coast of Norway, with a view to recover the throne. A storm destroyed many of his ships, and his rival Frederick burned the rest ; so that he was compelled to surrender himself prisoner, and was committed for life to the castle of Sonderburg, where he died, aged 77, 1559. It was upon the abdication of Christiern II. that the Scandinavian Union was broken up, and Sweden declared for ever free, through the patriotic exertions of Gustavus. (*See Gustavus Vasa.*) The treaty of Calmar had

greatly increased the Scandinavian power, by concentrating the political energies of the three nations ; and had not intestine quarrels, especially Swedish revolts, diverted the mind of both king and nobles from reflecting on the influence they were acquiring, there is little doubt that the Northern Union would have risen suddenly, as Russia since has done, and become a leading power among European states. FREDERICK I. was encouraged by the Danish peers to lay claim to the crown of Sweden ; but he prudently made a treaty with Gustavus Vasa, who was too firmly established to be dispossessed without a severe struggle. Frederick, however, succeeded in obtaining the isle of Gothland from Sweden ; and in 1527 embraced the Lutheran religion, and established it in his dominions. He died 1534, aged 60, and is highly commended for the justice and moderation of his government. His son CHRISTIERN III. was his successor ; and his reign was marked by the extension of protestantism, and the expulsion of the Romish clergy. He founded the university of Copenhagen, collected a fine library, protected learned men, and governed with great mildness ; dying, aged 56, 1559.

SWEDEN UNDER GUSTAVUS VASA. — This prince was the son of Eric Vasa, duke of Gripsholm, descended from the ancient kings of Sweden. He distinguished himself, as standard-bearer of the kingdom, in repulsing the Danes when they attacked Stockholm 1516, and in their siege of it, with Christiern II. at their head, 1518. That treacherous king carried him captive to Copenhagen, as has been related ; but by the friendship of Eric Banner, a Danish lord, he was enabled to escape, soon after the death of Steno, 1519, in the disguise of a peasant, to a castle belonging to his family in Sudermania. While there in concealment, he heard of Christiern's coronation at Stockholm, and of the execution of his father and the other nobles ; and fearing a surprise, he wandered thence

into the mountains of Dalecarlia, and engaged himself as a labourer in the copper-mines of that district. At length a woman in whose house he lodged (say the Swedish historians) perceived under his labourer's habit a silk robe embroidered with gold, and soon carried the news to the whole village; whereupon he was visited by several persons, and the wife of one Peterson, aided by a priest, after clothing him in a dress suitable to his quality, introduced him to the assembled congregation of a church. The name of Ericson acted as a talisman; and on that same day the castle of Dalecarlia was surprised by a party of Swedish gentlemen, who had been outlawed by Christiern, and who were now led on by Gustavus. The aspiring chieftain secured the passes of the mountains, abolished the exorbitant taxes which Christiern had laid upon the people, and despatched emissaries through the kingdom, to dispose the nobility to appear in arms on his entering their provinces. Christiern, not daring to leave Denmark, where the people, exasperated by his cruelties, were ready to revolt, wrote to his viceroy in Sweden to march against the rebels; and sent word to Gustavus that his mother and sister should suffer the most cruel torments, if he again appeared at their head. But Gustavus drove the viceroy before him, and defeated the archbishop of Upsal, who had taken arms against him; on which Christiern (who seems to have out-Neroed Nero) caused the prince's mother and sister to be tied up in a sack, and cast into the sea. Gustavus was proclaimed sovereign of Sweden 1523; but every king being compelled at his coronation to swear to observe the rights of the clergy, he deferred that ceremony, in order the better to promote the Reformation. Having encouraged the Lutheran divines to preach in all parts of his dominions, he seized the church-lands, declared himself a Lutheran, and was crowned 1528. He encouraged trade, erected

citadels on the frontiers of his kingdom, reigned without favourites or ministers, made the happiness of his subjects the main object of his labours, and died, aged 70, 1560. After Vasa, the Swedish throne was no more elective, but hereditary.

PORTUGAL UNDER JOHN III.—João III. succeeded his father Emanuel 1521, and in three years after his accession introduced the Inquisition. Suleiman II., envying the power and opulence of the Portuguese, ordered his vizir to fit out a fleet, and attack their possessions in India; but though a large armament sailed, the valour of the Portuguese prevented the landing of the vizir's troops, and the ships one by one escaped to the Red Sea. In Africa, John had no great success; and as Barbary yet remained unconquered, he contented himself with adding strength to such fortresses as he possessed there, and next turned his attention to the colony recently established in Brazil. That country had been explored by Vespuccio 1501, but no settlement was made till 1549; when the subjects of João founded the city of St. Salvador. The king encouraged the settlers in every way, caused several other strong towns to be begun, and held out inducements to the natives to become Christians. Meanwhile he neglected not the happiness of his people at home. In order to put an end to the serious quarrels of his nobles regarding precedence, he established rules which have subsisted ever since, and which in a great measure prevented further altercations. While designing other important reforms, the good João was seized suddenly with a mortal illness, and expired, aged 55, 1557.

SPAIN AND GERMANY UNDER CHARLES V.—Charles I. of Spain, better known as Charles V. of Germany; was the son of Philip I. Bel, archduke of Austria, and Joanna, queen of Castile; and after an education under Adrian of Utrecht (eventually pope Adrian VI.), was called at 16 to succeed his grand-

father Ferdinand, the restorer of the Spanish monarchy, 1516. Cardinal Ximenes, the minister of Ferdinand, sent pressing invitations to Charles to repair to Spain; but the prince, young and inexperienced, and surrounded by Flemish favourites, delayed a twelvemonth before he set out from Flanders. At last he embarked with his Flemish court, and landed in the Asturias, 1517, where the Castilian nobility hastened to meet him. Ximenes, also, old and infirm as he was, had hoped to greet the young king; but he fell ill on the road, and died at Aranda, after receiving a cold letter of dismissal from Charles. Discontent soon showed itself among the Castilians at the insolence and rapacity of the Flemish courtiers, on whom was bestowed every appointment of value; and while Charles was attempting to allay the ferment, he received news of the emperor Maximilian's death, 1519. In a few months more, he was himself elected to succeed his grandfather, and hastened to leave Spain for Germany. Having made Adrian of Utrecht regent of Castile, and appointed viceroys for Aragon and Valencia, he sailed from Corunna, 1520, landed at Dover on his way, (where he had an interview with Henry VIII. and Wolsey,) and was crowned emperor at Aix-la-Chapelle. Germany was at that moment disturbed by Luther's proceedings; and at a diet held at Worms, 1521, the former was summoned to appear. He accordingly came, but refused to retract his opinions, and appealed to a general council. He was allowed to depart in safety; but after he had gone, an edict of outlawry was issued against him by the authority of the diet. While Charles was thus among his new subjects, the nobles of Castile, galled by the supremacy of the Flemish, and even by the regency of Adrian, whose stern demeanour constantly offended their pride, incited the towns to a revolt, 1520; and a junta of citizens was convoked with the title of 'Comuneros,' at the

head of whom was Padilla, a young nobleman of Toledo. Renouncing allegiance to the regency, the Comuneros appealed to Charles himself for a redress of grievances, and took possession of the person of Joanna, who, in all public acts, was still styled queen of Castile. That princess had been for years insane; but when Padilla and others complained to her of the injustice they had suffered, she seemed to have a lucid interval, and promised redress. She even received in state the deputies of the towns and the members of the junta, who kissed her hand, and swore allegiance to her; but after the ceremony, she relapsed into her usual melancholy, and could not be made to sign any paper. For some months the affairs of the Comuneros seemed to prosper; they defeated the troops of the regency at Tordesillas; and almost all the towns of Castile embraced their cause. But the junta having shown a disposition to curtail the privileges of the nobility and clergy, among others the important one of being exempt from taxes, they lost the support of those two powerful bodies; and when the Cortes agitated the question of the former crown lands, (of which the nobility had got possession in the course of time,) and proposed that they should be re-annexed to the royal domains, the nobles openly espoused the part of the crown, armed their vassals, attacked the Comuneros at Villareal, defeated them, took Padilla prisoner, and immediately executed him. Padilla's wife, Maria Pacheco, defended herself for a short time within Toledo, and at last contrived to escape into Portugal. Charles soon after returned from Germany; and reassuming the reins of government, issued an amnesty for all past political offences. A war with France soon engrossed all his attention; his armies, triumphant in Italy, drove the French from Lombardy, took Genoa, and at last, in 1525, gained the great battle of Pavia, and made Francis I. prisoner. The release of Francis, and the sack

of Rome, by Charles's forces, 1627, are noticed in the papal and French histories. When Clement VII. was made prisoner, Charles at Madrid hypocritically ordered prayers to be offered up for his deliverance, saying, that he was obliged to make war against the temporal sovereign of Rome, but not upon the spiritual head of the Church. The treaty of Cambrai, 1529, made peace between Charles and Francis, who gave up all claim to Italy and Flanders; and Charles being also reconciled to Clement, was crowned by him, 1530, at Bologna. After uniting his troops with those of Clement to compel the Florentines to receive for their prince Alexander de Medici, Charles returned to Germany; where the consequences of the religious schism became every day more threatening. At a great diet at Augsburg, 1530, the Lutheran confession of faith was solemnly presented to him; whereon he adopted a temporizing policy towards the protestants, even to make it believed that he favoured their doctrines in his heart. In 1535, he restored Muley Hassan to the throne of Tunis, from which he had been driven by Barbarosa; and on his return from Africa he entered Naples in triumph, having liberated 20,000 Christian slaves, and given for a time an effectual blow to the great African pirate. He, however, found Francis again prepared for war, and the period from 1536 to 1538 was spent in contests in Provence and Piedmont between the two monarchs; when Charles, having lost half his army, was rejoiced to conclude a truce with Francis, through the mediation of Paul III. This was, however, broken, as has been stated in the reign of Francis, by the want of fidelity on the part of Charles, and hostilities were again commenced, 1542.

Meanwhile, in 1541, Charles had sailed with an armament to attack Algiers, against the advice of his old admiral, Andrea Doria. He landed near that city, and began the siege; but his troops were cut off by dis-

ease, and by the Arabs. A dreadful storm dispersed his fleet; and he was compelled to re-embark with a small portion of his men, leaving his artillery and baggage behind.

The ostensible cause of the fresh contest with Francis was the offence taken by that king at the seizure and execution, by Charles's governor of Milan, of Rincon, a Spaniard, and Tregosa, a Genoese, who had deserted to Francis from Charles, and were on their way to Suleiman II. respecting an alliance with France; but when Suleiman had sent Barbarosa with a large fleet to ravage the coasts of Italy, a peace ensued at Crespì, 1544. The diet of Worms having passed several resolutions against the protestants, 1545, they rose in arms under Frederick, elector of Saxony, and the landgrave of Hesse. Charles defeated them, took the two princes prisoners, and gave Saxony to Maurice, a kinsman of Frederick. Maurice, however, was secretly in the protestant interest; and at last, in 1552, threw off the mask, by taking the field at the head of the reform confederacy, and was very near surprising the emperor at Innspruck, whence Charles was obliged to flee with precipitation. He also frightened away the fathers of the council assembled at Trent. At the same crisis, Henri II., who had succeeded Francis I., commenced hostilities against Charles; who was obliged thereupon to sign the treaty of Passau, by which the protestants were allowed the free exercise of their religion in their respective dominions. This treaty was confirmed by the diet at Augsburg, 1555, and was called 'the peace of religion'; it being the foundation of religious freedom in Germany. The war continued with the French on one side, and with the Turks in Hungary on the other. In 1554, Philip, Charles's son, had married Mary, queen of England; upon which occasion his father made over to him the crowns of Naples and Sicily. In 1555 the imbecile Joanna died; and Charles, being now sole ruler of

Spain, put in effect a resolution he had formed some years before. Having assembled the States of the Low Countries at Brussels, 1555, he appeared, seated between his son Philip and his sister, the queen of Hungary, and resigned the sovereignty of the Netherlands, his paternal dominions, to Philip. He then rose, and leaning on his son for support (as he was suffering from gout), said: 'Ever since the age of 17, I have devoted all my thoughts and exertions to public objects, seldom reserving any portion of my time for the indulgence of ease or pleasure. I have visited Germany nine times, Spain six, France four, Italy seven, Flanders ten times, England twice, and Africa twice; have made eleven voyages by sea; and have not avoided labour, or repined under fatigue, in the arduous office of governing my extensive dominions; but now my constitution fails me, and my infirmities warn me that it is time to retire from the helm. I am not so fond of reigning, as to wish to retain the sceptre with a powerless hand. If, in the course of a long administration, I have committed errors; if, under the pressure of a multiplicity of affairs, I have neglected or wronged any man, I now implore his forgiveness. I feel grateful for your fidelity and attachment; and shall with my last breath pray for the welfare of you all.' Then turning to Philip, he gave him some salutary advice, especially to respect the laws and the liberties of his subjects; after which, somewhat exhausted with emotion, he closed the impressive scene by retiring. In a fortnight after, he made over to Philip, with the same solemnity, and before a large assembly of Spanish grandees and German princes, the crowns of Spain and the Indies. In 1556 he in like manner resigned the imperial crown to his brother Ferdinand, who had already been elected king of the Romans; and after visiting his native place, Ghent, he embarked for Spain with a small retinue. On landing at Laredo in

Biscay, he kissed the ground, saying, 'Naked I came out of my mother's womb, and naked I return to thee, thou common mother of mankind!' In 1557, accompanied by one gentleman-attendant and 12 domestics, he retired to the monastery of St. Justo, near Plasencia, in Estremadura, in a sequestered valley, at the foot of the Sierra de Gredos. There he employed himself either in his garden, or in contriving works of mechanism, in which last he was assisted by the ingenious Turriano. His body becoming more and more enfeebled by repeated fits of the gout, his mind at length lost its energy; and he fell into gloomy reveries, and the practice of ascetic austerities. Among other things, he had himself laid in a coffin, and wrapped in a shroud, and the funeral service performed over him in the chapel of the convent. The fatigue and excitement of this ceremony, however, brought on a nervous fever, which carried him off, 1558, in his 59th year.

POLAND UNDER SIGISMUND I.—He succeeded his father Alexander, 1506, and after spiritedly clearing Russia Nigra of the Walachians, defeated the Russians on the Borristhenes; and then attacked the Teutonic knights, under the marquis of Brandenburg, their grand-master, from whom he took the greater portion of Pomerania. The house of Austria, jealous of the increasing power of Sigismund, now incited the Russians, Moldavians, and Tartars to fall upon his territories at once; but the bravery of count Taro, the Polish generalissimo, foiled all their efforts. In a word, the reign of Sigismund is regarded as the golden age of Poland: Lithuania, Smolensk, and vast territories beyond the Euxine and Baltic, were under his sway; while Lewis, his nephew, possessed Hungary, Bohemia, and Silesia. Sigismund died, aged 84, 1548.

RUSSIA UNDER VASILY IV.—Ivan III. was no sooner dead, 1505, than his son Gabriel, by his consort Sophia, starved the young Demetrius, his ne-

phew, in prison, and was crowned grand-duke, as Basil IV. After attempting the dethronement of Sigismund of Poland, he concluded a peace with that king; but when he had, by a breach of faith, invaded Lithuania, the Poles, aided by the Crimean Tartars, gave his general battle at Orsova, on the Dnieper, and defeated him with immense loss. The Crimean Tartars thereupon broke into Russia, and got possession of Moscow, 1521. Basil with difficulty escaped to Novgorod, and, on his way thither, hid himself beneath a hay-cock, to avoid a straggling party of the enemy. Machmet Gerei, the Tartar chief, hereupon caused his own statue to be set up at Moscow, as a mark of his sovereignty; and having compelled Basil to return to his capital, to pay down a large sum as the first year's tribute, and to prostrate himself before the statue, departed with an immense booty, and 80,000 prisoners, whom he sold as slaves to the Turks. Basil died 1533.

PERSIA UNDER TAMASP I.—He succeeded his father, Ismail the Sage, 1523, and was repeatedly engaged in war with the emperor Suleiman, by whom Persia was more than once invaded; but the Turks were unable to retain their conquests. Tamasp received and protected Humayun, sultan of Delhi, when expelled by Shir Khan 1542; and enabled him to return to Hindustan, and recover his dominions, 1556. After a reign of 53 years, he died, 1576.

DELHI UNDER BABER, THE FIRST GREAT MONGUL.—Ibrahim Lodi, who succeeded his father Sekander 1517, having excited by his cruelty and insincerity the rebellion of his principal nobles, some of them invited Baber, a descendant of Timur, into India. A battle was fought at Paniput between him and Ibrahim, in which the latter was slain; and the empire of Hindustan was thereupon transferred from the Afghans to the house of Timur, 1526, Baber assuming the imposing title of 'Great Mongul,' a distinction to which all the

sovereigns of Delhi to this day (nominal as their power now is) have laid claim. Baber was fifth in descent from Tamerlane, and having been driven from his patrimonial possession of Ferghana by the khan of the Usbek Tartars, had made several attempts to enter India, but had been repulsed by the governor of Lahore. His fifth and last attempt was successful, chiefly by the aid of Dowlat Khan Lodi, and other Afghan chiefs; and his military skill and activity eventually overcoming all opposition, 1526, he ruled during the last year of his life in peace. His death occurred 1530.

FALL OF MILAN.—Though Maximilian Sforza had been restored by the emperor Maximilian to his father's duchy, 1512, that sovereign was not long able to support him therein. In 1513 the army of La Trimouille again took the Milanese; but the Swiss defeated that general soon after, and drove the French entirely out. Francis I., on succeeding his father-in-law Louis XII., 1515, took the title of duke of Milan, and put himself at the head of a powerful army to make good his right. The Swiss, who defended the Milanese, gave him battle, 1516, but were cut to pieces, leaving 15,000 dead on the field. Duke Maximilian, in despair, hereupon ceded Milan to Francis, and departed for France, where he had an annual pension of 30,000 golden crowns, till his decease at Paris, 1530. Meanwhile Charles V. had succeeded to the imperial throne 1519; and, jealous rival as he was of Francis, he got possession of Milan 1521, and placed on the throne Francesco Sforza, brother of the deposed Maximilian. That prince was enabled to maintain his authority until his death, 1535; and leaving no issue, the duchy of Milan fell to Charles V. During nearly two centuries that it remained under the Spanish branch of the house of Austria, it declined greatly from its former prosperity, through the despotism of the delegated viceroys and governors from

Spain ; but when transferred to the German branch of the same family, by the result of the war of the Spanish succession 1704, all Lombardy began to revive. Under the reign of Maria Theresa, the duchy assumed a flourishing aspect ; and its happiness continued till the invasion by Buonaparte, 1796. By the peace of Campo Formio, 1797, Austria gave up Milan and Mantua, and received as a compensation for them and Belgium (which was also taken from her by the French), the territory of Venice, whose oligarchy Buonaparte had overthrown. Milan and Mantua, or Lombardy Proper, were made first a republic dependent on France, and then a kingdom, of which Napoleon declared himself ruler, 1805. At the close of that year, in consequence of the campaign of Austerlitz, Buonaparte retook from Austria the Venetian territories ; and annexing them to Lombardy, styled the whole 'the kingdom of Italy,' though the new state comprised not above a third of that peninsula. He added to it Modena, and in 1808 the Papal Marches ; the whole population of the kingdom being six millions. In 1814 the Austrian and allied forces occupied the kingdom of Italy, and the emperor Francis again took possession of Milan and Mantua, and also of Venice, the latter as a compensation for his loss of Belgium ; and this measure was confirmed by the congress of Vienna, 1815. The districts south of the Po were restored to their former sovereigns ; Modena to its duke, and the Marches to the pope. The emperor Francis then formed the territories of Milan, Mantua, and Venice into what is now styled the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and annexed it to the imperial crown of Austria for ever.

NAVARRÉ UNDER HENRY D'ALBRET.—This prince succeeded his brother John 1516, and married Margaret de Valois, sister of Francis I. of France, and widow of the duc d'Alençon. Queen Margaret united her efforts with those of her husband

to make their little kingdom flourish, by encouraging agriculture and the useful arts. She was fond of reading, and had been led by literary curiosity to make herself acquainted with the principles of the reformers, to which she became partially a convert ; but in complaisance to her brother, she became more strict in her attention to the ceremonial of the ancient religion. Though so contemplative and pious in her conduct as a queen, she was author of a book of tales, as free in their tendency as those of Boccaccio, entitled 'L'Heptameron.' She died in her 58th year, 1549, leaving an only child, Joan, who succeeded to the throne at the decease of her father Henry, 1555.

IRELAND UNDER HENRY VIII.—Henry governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other ; but as they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V., Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into rebellion 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor ; but he was captured, and hanged at Tyburn. After this, the house of Austria took extraordinary pains again to form a strong party among the Irish. About 1542, James V. of Scotland made some pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong party of the Irish themselves ; and it is hard to say, had he lived, what the consequences of his claim might have been. Henry, hearing that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland, took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Irish, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord ; and, to speak the truth, it is somewhat surprising that this expedient had not been thought of before. The measure produced a very general submission to Henry's government ;

and even O'Neil, who pretended to be the descendant of the last paramount king of Ireland, took the oaths, for which he was created earl of Tyron. The pope, however, and the

princes of the house of Austria, by remitting money, and sometimes sending over troops, still kept up their interest in Ireland, and drew from it vast numbers of men to their armies.

INVENTIONS, &c.

ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL, London, founded 1509, by Dean Colet, for the instruction in humane letters of 153 boys, gratis; the number being selected in accordance with that of the miraculous draught of fishes mentioned in St. John's gospel. The income of the school is now above 5000*l.*, besides an additional 1000*l.* from a bequest of viscount Camden (1685) for the endowment of exhibitions of 100*l.* per annum each at Trinity college, Cambridge. There are also numerous exhibitions of 50*l.* a year, each tenable for five years at either university. The school apartments were rebuilt entirely of stone 1824, on the old site in St. Paul's churchyard; with a fine arcade for the recreation of the boys. The founder, John Colet (1466—1519) was son of a lord mayor of London, who had 21 other children. He was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford; but his learning did not extend to Greek, the study of which was opposed in that university by the Trojans. (*See Sir John Cheke.*) He was made dean of St. Paul's 1505, and died of a third attack of the sweating sickness, aged 53, 1519.

THE COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS, founded in London by Dr. Thomas Linacre 1510. Linacre was a native of Canterbury, and after obtaining a fellowship at All Soul's, Oxford, travelled to Rome, and the court of Lorenzo de Medici. He founded lectureships in medicine both at Oxford and Cambridge: and further benefited his profession by giving elegant translations in Latin of the more valuable portions of Galen. In 1520 he took holy orders; and he died, aged 64, 1524. No one is fully entitled to practise as a physician in England, who has not passed an examination at, or received a diploma from, this college.

THE MUSKET invented by a Spaniard, and first used at the battle of Pavia, 1524; on which occasion it mainly contributed to decide the fortune of the day. The instrument, however, was not generally adopted till 1667, when the duke of Alva employed it largely among his troops in the Netherlands. The French added the *bayonet* to the musket, 1693.

WHITEHALL AND ST. JAMES'S PALACES built, the former by Wolsey (of which the painted chamber, now the chapel, alone remains), 1545; and the latter by Henry VIII., 1530.

DAMASK AND MUSK ROSES, also carrots, turnips, pippin-apples, hops, and red and white currants, introduced into England from the Netherlands for growth, 1510—1520. The black currant is believed to be an indigenous plant of our island.

ORANGES FIRST IMPORTED into England from Italy, 1540, having been first introduced to Europe from China, 1156. The oranges chiefly used in England at the present day are from Portugal, Malta, the Barbary coast, the Azore isles, and Seville; but by far the greater number come from Seville, both sweet and bitter. Oranges were cultivated first in England in Elizabeth's time; and Henrietta Maria, queen of Charles I., had a splendid orangery at her mansion Wimbledon-hall; 42 of whose trees were sold by the parliament at 10*l.* a-piece. The tree in Spain blossoms in March; and the choicest fruit is left thereon until the blossoming again begins. No others are esteemed fit for eating by the Spaniards. Those intended for export are gathered, the earliest in November, and the latest in January; and if the latter do not corrupt in the voyage, they are found superior to all others.

PARISH REGISTERS first ordered to be kept in England, 1538.

EMINENT PERSONS.

THOMAS WOLSEY (1471—1530), the son of a butcher at Ipswich, completed his education at Magdalen College, Oxford, and was called 'the boy bachelor,' from taking his bachelor's degree so early as 14. He was by no means regular in his conduct at Oxford; but on his taking orders, the marquis of Dorset, giving him his three sons to educate, bestowed on him the living of Lymmington, Somerset, while Dean, archbishop of Canterbury, made him his chaplain. The governor of Calais having introduced him to Henry VII., that king sent him with a despatch to Bruges, and rewarded him for his expedition with the deanery of Lincoln. Fox, bishop of Winchester, recommended him to Henry VIII. at the period of his accession; and he courted the favour of that monarch so successfully, that he shortly obtained the first place in the royal favour, and became uncontrolled minister of state. He was rapidly appointed to other places of emolument; and after holding the see of Lincoln a year, was made archbishop of York, 1514. In 1515 the pope, to ingratiate himself with Henry, elevated him to the dignity of cardinal; and his nomination to be the pope's legate-à-latere, completed his ecclesiastical dignities, by exalting him above the archbishop of Canterbury. Naturally proud and ostentatious, perhaps no English subject, either lay or ecclesiastic, ever took so much state upon him as Wolsey, who constantly kept a train of 800 servants, many of whom were knights and gentlemen. In 1515, archbishop Warham, whom he had much annoyed by his contentious ambition, resigned the office of chancellor, to which Wolsey was appointed; and his administration in that capacity is said to have done him credit. When the rivalry between Charles V. and Francis I. rendered the friendship of Henry of great importance, Wolsey was treated with the greatest respect

by both sovereigns; receiving pensions from each, as well as a third from the pope. He ultimately, however, favoured the side of Charles, who settled upon him the revenues of two bishoprics in Spain, and flattered him with hopes of the popedom, which induced him to involve Henry in a war with France. Insatiable in the pursuit of ecclesiastical emolument, Wolsey obtained in 1519 the administration of the see of Bath and Wells, and the temporalities of the abbey of St. Alban's; and afterwards enjoyed in succession the rich bishoprics of Durham and Winchester. By these means his revenues nearly equalled that of the crown; part of which he expended in pomp and ostentation, and part in laudable munificence for the advancement of learning. He founded the college of Christchurch, Oxford, and a collegiate school at Ipswich; and built a palace at Hampton Court, which, when his wealth became to be matter of talk, he presented to the king. The critical affair of the divorce of queen Catherine was one of the first steps to his fall; the cardinal being regarded as a party to the artificial delays of the court of Rome. Other obstacles to the union with Anne Boleyn still farther involved him; and at length, in 1529, the dukes of Norfolk and Suffolk were sent to require the great seal from him, and he was ordered to quit York Palace, his palace in London, and retire to Esher, all his rich plate and furniture being seized in the king's name. After a short suspense, owing to some remnant of attachment on the part of Henry, articles of impeachment were exhibited against him in parliament; but he was defended so vigorously by his retainer Cromwell, that they were withdrawn. His enemies then indicted him, under the statute of provisos, for procuring bulls from Rome, which was made the ground of a sentence of forfeiture; and when the intended effect had been produced,

of making him resign York Palace and its riches to the king, he was granted a full pardon, and part of his revenues. In 1530, he was ordered to remove to his diocese of York, where he passed part of the year at his mansion of Cawood; until once more, on the 1st of November in the same year, he was arrested for high treason, and set out under custody for London. Indisposition of body, however, combining with mental distress, he was obliged to stop at Leicester, where he was honourably received at the abbey; and his disorder increasing, a few days brought him to his end (Nov. 28, 1530), in the 60th year of his age. Shortly before his decease, he exclaimed to the officer appointed to conduct him, 'Had I but served God as diligently as I have served my king, he would not have given me over in my grey hairs;' and we may learn from his eventful life, that ambition is insatiable, the favour of princes unstable, and the service of God alone that which does not fail of bringing peace in the end.

MARTIN LUTHER, son of a Saxon miner, was born at Eisleben 1483; after a good education at Erfurt, became an Augustine monk in the convent of that city at 22; and at 24 took priest's orders. He soon distinguished himself by his zealous support of the hierarchy; and when Erasmus had written against the mass, Luther expressed his hope that he might carry the first faggot to light the funeral pyre of the heretic. Upon the publication of Leo's bull for the sale of indulgences, Luther became fiercely enraged, because Albert, archbishop of Mentz, who farmed the produce of the tax for Saxony, appointed the Dominicans to distribute the licences instead of the Augustines, whose privilege it had ever been. He instantly resented the affront put upon his order, by exclaiming against the sale altogether, as unauthorized by God's word; and he and Tetzel, a monk of the Dominican order, were soon involved in a fierce paper-war.

When Luther, who had become professor of divinity in the newly-established university of Wittenberg, had published a thesis, attacking the system of indulgences, Tetzel burned it in the market-place of Frankfurt; while Leo X. summoned the contumacious author to Rome to answer for his conduct. Luther, however, fearing to put himself in the power of the pope, insisted on having his cause tried in Germany; where he was strongly protected by the elector of Saxony, and other princes. The pope at length sent cardinal Cajetan to settle the controversy; before whom Luther made his appearance to defend himself at Augsburg. Finding that he could obtain no terms but on entire submission to the authority of his judge, he withdrew from the place, under the apprehension of danger; and a decree being issued against him, he appealed from the pope to a general council. When Luther had ventured to give the cup to the laity, in administering the sacrament, the pope issued a bull of excommunication against him, as a confirmed heretic; but he displayed his contempt for the holy see, by burning the instrument of denunciation in the presence of the assembled students and professors of Wittenberg. At the beginning of 1521, he appeared at the diet of Worms, to which he had been summoned under protection of the imperial safe conduct; but as he was returning home, he was surrounded by a body of horsemen, and conveyed to the castle of Wartenberg, a friendly stratagem of the elector of Saxony, adopted as a precaution against the threatened vengeance of the hierarchy. Luther remained in his retreat nine months, employing his pen in the defence of his principles; and it was then that he wrote an answer to the treatise which our Henry VIII. had published against him. In 1525, having now resolved on still further deviations from the old system, he cast aside the monastic habit, and married Catharine de Bohren, a nun

who had escaped from her convent, and relinquished her vows. In 1529, Charles V. assembled a diet at Spire, to concert measures against the advocates of Luther's notions; and some severe resolutions being passed against them, a *protest* was signed by such princes and others at the council as favoured the reformer, whence they, and all subsequent supporters of the breach with Rome, received the distinctive appellation of *protestants*. Luther spent his latter days in writing to support the chief doctrines of the reformation, though he still adhered to a belief in transubstantiation, and other speculative notions; and he died in his native town, aged 62, 1546, just as the great council of Trent was assembling to try his opinions, and was buried in the cathedral of Wittemberg.

No man can doubt that the talents of Luther were of the highest order, or that the reformer would have been a distinguished man in any age. As regards his motives, however, we cannot exempt them from the charge of having originated in self-interest; though, when once embarked in the religious contest he had alone provoked, he conscientiously attacked many acknowledged corruptions of the Church. (*See Sixteenth Century of the Church.*) But a real convert to what is now understood by protestantism, Luther cannot certainly be esteemed; it would be strange indeed, and great must have been his previous hypocrisy, if a man who had been educated as a divine, and who had long maintained, with no common share of zeal, the greater number of supererogatory tenets of the Church, and who had even written in their defence, could, on a sudden, feel that he did not believe them at all. He, however, merits not this charge of hypocrisy; for, beyond emancipating Christians from papal tyranny by giving the cup to the laity, placing benefices in the hands of the proper patrons, proving purgatory a vain doctrine, opposing the sale of indulgences and such like

practices as unholy, and enabling priests to marry,—all great and admirable achievements—he did little; and were a man in our day to profess precisely the religious opinions which Luther held after the establishment of the reformation, he would assuredly, astounding as the fact may appear, be declared, to all intents and purposes, a Roman Catholic. In a word, *Luther*, to make the paradox complete, was never himself a *Lutheran*.

THOMAS MORE (1480—1535), son of Sir John, a judge of the King's Bench, was born and educated in London, and then sent to Canterbury College, Oxford. In 1499 he entered at Lincoln's-inn, and in 1501 (at 21) obtained a seat in parliament; but he so offended Henry VII. by opposing the grant for his daughter's marriage (the queen of Scots), that the avaricious king, on some poor plea, imprisoned his father, the judge, and exacted from him a large fine. Having married, More applied closely to the law, became noted as a pleader, and was in 1516 sent with the commissioners to renew the alliance between Henry VIII. and Charles, then archduke of Austria. In 1518 appeared his '*Utopia*,' a political romance, based on the pretended discovery of a nation by Americus; and which evinces a mind well exercised in the consideration of many deep and important subjects. Cardinal Wolsey, on its publication, offered him a pension, which he however disinterestedly declined; and Erasmus and other learned men engaged him in correspondence. The king soon after knighted him, made him master of requests, one of his privy council, and treasurer of the exchequer; and in 1523, at the instance of Wolsey, he was chosen speaker of the commons. He went with the cardinal, 1527, on a mission to France, and succeeded him as lord high chancellor upon his disgrace, 1530. The duties of that eminent post he discharged with integrity for three years; but in the persecuting spirit of the

times, he took a zealous part against the reformers, and in one instance, that of Mr. Bainham, a lawyer, caused the offender to be whipped and tortured in his own presence. But that More was conscientious in the opinions which prompted this severity, there can be no manner of doubt; and he soon gave evidence of the fact, in a way which has entitled him to the praise of being one of the most upright, disinterested, and consistent characters of history. Having resigned the seals, declaring he could not in conscience assent to Henry's divorce from Catherine, the king soon displayed the deep offence which the act had given him; his absence also from the coronation of Anne Boleyn widened the breach; and on his subsequent refusal to take the famous oath of supremacy, he was cited before the council. There, in defiance of the sophistry of Cranmer and others, he persisted in declining to act against his conscience; and after a year's imprisonment in the Tower, he was tried for treason, condemned, and sentenced to be hanged and quartered. Henry affected mercy, by commuting the hanging to beheading; and More received, with that jocose cheerfulness which was inherent in his character, the royal message that conveyed the boon. 'God forbid!' he exclaimed, 'the king should use any more such mercy unto any of my friends; and God bless all my posterity from such pardons.' With equal liveliness he acquiesced in the tyrannical mandate, 'not to use much speech at the scaffold.' It was on the 1st of July, 1535, that this excellent person, after receiving judgment at Westminster, was taken back to the Tower in a boat by his keepers; and on landing at the Tower-wharf, his favourite daughter, Margaret, forced her way through the crowd waiting at the spot, and, falling on her knees, implored his blessing. Sir Thomas affectionately stooped down, threw his arms about her neck, and invoked the protection of God upon her. He

then passed on; and although the guards with halberds now surrounded him, the affectionate young woman pushed them aside, reached his person again, and, in sight of the crowd, embraced and kissed him. Again she followed, and repeated the filial act; until the guards, at a drawbridge over which her father had to pass, stayed her progress, and obliged her to return. On the 6th, Sir Thomas was led from his prison to the spot prepared for his execution; and on perceiving that the scaffold was very weakly constructed, he observed to the lieutenant of the Tower, 'I pray you, sir, see me safe up; and for my coming down, let me shift for myself;' and after having placed his head on the block, he requested the executioner to wait until he had removed his beard on one side, to prevent its being cut off, 'for that,' he observed, 'has committed no treason.' He suffered in his 56th year; and his daughter Margaret, by the king's permission, attended his headless body to the grave, but was soon after called before the privy-council, and placed in imminent danger, for having bought and carried away the head, after it had been exposed some days on London Bridge, instead of allowing it to be thrown into the Thames. This faithful child was then the wife of Mr. William Roper; and Sir Thomas was always so devoted to her, that, during a dangerous illness with which she was visited, he resolved, if she had died, to withdraw himself wholly from the world. She was the dispenser of her father's secret charities; and to her alone he entrusted the knowledge of the severe religious austerities to which he subjected himself—his hair shirt, and his repeated scourgings. In some of these self-inflicted penalties she imitated her parent. 'She had her shirts and girdles of hair,' says bishop Fisher in one of his sermons, 'which, when she was in health, every week she failed not on certain days to wear, sometimes the one, sometimes the other; that full often her skin, as I heard say,

was pierced therewith.' Though Mrs. Roper's veneration for her father scarcely knew any limits, yet it is remarkable that she not only took the obnoxious oath, with the qualification, however, 'as far it would stand with the law of God,' but used every argument to induce him to follow her example. She survived Sir Thomas nine years, dying, aged 36, 1544; and her father's head was placed in a box upon her coffin.

PIERRE, CHEVALIER DE BAYARD (1417—1524), born in Dauphiné, became a soldier of fortune, and followed Charles VIII. into Italy. That king, when Naples fell to him, was so struck with the upright conduct of Bayard, who gave back to the daughter of his hostess at Brescia the 2000 pistoles he had received for the protection of the house, and treated with honourable delicacy a beautiful woman who became his prisoner, that he promoted him, observing he was indeed 'un chevalier sans peur et sans reproche.' He was not less distinguished when in the service of Louis XII., contributing greatly to the conquest of Milan, and, like Cocles, singly defending a bridge against 200 warriors. So great at length became his reputation, that Francis I. (who regarded him as much as his predecessors), after the victory of Marignan, 1615, in which battle Bayard had constantly fought by his side, desired to be knighted by his sword; which was accordingly done by the chevalier in the presence of the French army, in the manner of ancient times. He fell by a musket-shot in the retreat from Rebec, 1524, at the age of 47; and his last moments were peculiarly characteristic of the man. Having kissed the cross of his sword while helpless on the ground, he confessed himself to his squire, and requested to be placed with his back to a tree, having his face turned towards the enemy. The constable of Bourbon, then fighting against his country, on coming up in pursuit, expressed his regret at seeing so brave a soldier

about to die: 'It is not I who am to be pitied!' replied Bayard, 'but you, who carry arms against your king, your country, and your oath;' and so saying, he expired.

HERNAN CORTEZ (1485—1547), born at Medellin in Spain, studied law at Salamanca; but being of an unruly disposition, he was urged by his father to go under the general Velasquez against Cuba, 1511. Velasquez so approved his conduct, that he commissioned him to begin the conquest of Mexico, 1518, then just discovered; and though, out of jealousy, he recalled him when he heard of his taking the town of Tabasco, and of his obtaining gold and slaves from its cacique or chief, Cortez proceeded in his career, and at San Juan d'Ulloa caused the Mexican chiefs to believe his party those descendants of the sun, who were destined by prophecy to subvert the Aztec empire. The havoc made on trees by the terrific discharge of cannon-balls, the thunder of the explosions, the skilful evolutions of the Spanish cavalry, and the daring manners and military carriage of the invaders, gave strength to the belief; and after encouraging the tributary caciques to throw off the Mexican yoke, aiding them in the attempt, and often slaughtering thousands of them himself in consequence of their jealousy of his intentions, Cortez and his followers were received by the emperor Montezuma at Tenochtitlan, the capital of his barbaric state, as *teules* or deities, November, 1519. But before he marched upon the capital, Cortez had founded the Spanish colony of Villa Rica de Vera Cruz, and defeated the partisans of Velasquez that were in his army and had revolted; and he had scarcely entered Tenochtitlan, when the Mexicans, secretly instructed by Velasquez, attacked Vera Cruz, and cutting off the head of a Spaniard, carried it about triumphantly, to prove the poor claim of their opponents to immortality. Cortez hereupon, to prevent further mischief, seized the person of Montezuma, and compelling

him to give up the leader of the attack upon Vera Cruz, his son, and five other officers, had them all burned alive in front of the imperial residence, on a pile made of the weapons kept in store for the defence of the state, and in presence of the emperor in chains. Montezuma was now set at liberty, but refused to embrace Christianity; and when Cortez led his soldiers to stop the human sacrifices, and throw down the idols in the grand temple, both priests and people rose in arms, and forced him to desist. After this provocation, the Mexicans became resolved to expel the Spaniards; and Montezuma boldly commanded Cortez to depart. The latter, however, continued to hold the capital for six months; at the end of which, Velasquez having sent a Spanish force to dispossess him, Cortez made its commander Narvaez prisoner, and induced the soldiers to join his own small army in Tenochtitlan. The Mexicans at length revolted, and drove the Spaniards from their capital, murdering Montezuma, because he tried to appease them; but Cortez defeated their troops in the plains of Otompan, July, 1520, and was in another six months in possession of all Mexico. The people rose again and again, but were put down with great slaughter by the adventurous Spaniard; who, though regarded by his country as a rebel, added to it thus a state, which proved for more than 300 years one of the brightest gems in the Castilian crown. Infuriated by the neglect of Charles I. (V.), who listened to his enemies, Cortez returned to Spain, 1528, when the monarch could not but raise him to a marquisate, and grant him an estate; but in two years he returned without authority to America, and occupied himself in fitting out expeditions at his own cost, one of which discovered California, 1535. In 1540 he once more returned to Spain, and, though coldly received by Charles, accompanied him, 1541, in his exploit against Algiers; which would have put an end for ever to sea piracy,

had his advice been followed. On his return from that disastrous attack, Cortez retired to Seville, where he died in affluence, aged 62, 1547. Putting aside the violence used by Cortez throughout his career, he must be regarded as one of the most magnanimous of conquerors. The destruction of his fleet at Vera Cruz, with the object of compelling his followers to conquer or die; his fearless entry into Mexico—the still bolder seizure of Montezuma in his own palace; his defeat of Narvaez; his victory of Otompan; and his magnanimity in the siege of Mexico—are deeds almost unparalleled, and carry with them more an air of romance than of reality.

RAFAELLE D'URBINO (1483—1520), regarded as the prince of modern design, was son of an artist, and born at Urbino. Devoted to his art almost from infancy, he, in 1499, went to Siena to assist in painting the history of Pius II. for the library of the cathedral. He was invited by Julius II. to Rome, 1506, to paint in fresco the chambers of the Vatican, the most valuable of his extant works; and it was here he produced his famous picture of the school of Athens. Under the patronage of Leo X., he painted his Attila and deliverance of St. Peter; and under that of Chigi, a rich banker of the Capitol, he executed some of his finest works for his private chapel. Having much skill in architecture, Leo, on the death of Bramante, confided to him the completion of the galleries of the Vatican, in which he displayed great and elegant invention; and he made him surveyor of the building of St. Peter's, in conjunction with Fra Giacondo, and employed him to make designs for some tapestry to be executed in Flanders, whence those famous cartoons obtained by Charles I., and still in the possession of the English regal house. The result of a rivalry with Sebastian del Piombo was the celebrated Transfiguration, in which Raffaele fully demonstrated his superiority. He also commenced an apartment in the Va-

tican, called the hall of Constantine ; but was prevented finishing it by his untimely death, which took place on his 37th birthday, 1520. Leo testified great emotion at the news of his decease, caused his body to lie in state in a hall in which was placed his picture of the Transfiguration, and had him buried in the church of the Roton-do. Raffaele possessed a handsome person ; but was highly licentious in morals. His superiority as a painter consisted in his power of displaying the human frame under emotion of every description, in his correct grouping, and in his excellency in practical detail, such as the colouring, drapery, chiaroscuro, &c.

HANS HOLBEIN (1498—1554), the son of a painter, was born at Basil in Switzerland, and came to England at the invitation of a nobleman who found him out in his travels. He was a man of coarse manners and dissolute habits ; and coming from the continent penniless, besides having forgotten the name of the inviting peer, he was on the point of begging his way home again, when, recollecting the features of his promised patron, he produced from his easel a striking resemblance of him ; and thus, like all master-minds, removed the last great obstacle to his advancement. A letter from Erasmus at length introduced him to Sir Thomas More, the chancellor ; and the letter recommended him to Henry VIII., who, with all his faults, was a liberal encourager of the fine arts. At the king's command, Holbein drew the portrait of the dowager duchess of Milan, whom Henry then thought of espousing ; and next that of Anne of Cleve, but in so flattering a manner, that we are induced to wonder, from the scrape into which the king was led by it, that the testy and tyrannical monarch had not made the painter's own head suffer for his insincerity. While in England, Holbein painted the principal nobility ; and these portraits are considered masterpieces of art, not shrinking from comparison even with Raffaele and Titian,

though betraying, by a certain stiffness, the artist's want of acquaintance with the Italian school. Some of his earlier fancy productions, such as the 'Dance of Death,' are very celebrated. Henry, however fickle towards others, was constant in the protection which he afforded to Holbein ; and was even so sensible of his value, that a memorable saying of his is recorded on the occasion of some complaint made against the artist's rudeness by a courtier : 'He is a ploughman,' observed Henry, 'to be sure ; and I can turn a ploughman into a peer ; but where are the seven lords out of which I could make one Holbein ?' Holbein died of the plague at Whitehall, aged 56, 1554.

NICOLAI COPERNICUS (1472—1543) was born at Thorn in Prussia ; and after studying philosophy at Cracovia, travelled in search of knowledge, and was made professor of mathematics at Rome, 1496. After some years' absence he returned home ; and though he entered the church, and was promoted to a canonry in the cathedral of Worms, he began an examination of the Ptolemaic system, then universally followed. Being impressed with a strong persuasion of the superior simplicity of the solar system as originally proposed by the Pythagoreans, he proceeded to develop his reasonings on the subject. The spherical figure of the earth had been generally admitted : the question then arose, was it suspended motionless in the universe, as the centre of the heavenly motions, or did it of necessity (as some argued), from the supposed impossibility of its remaining unsupported, revolve round another body ? His conclusions were marked with caution and deliberation. He contended that if we suppose the distance of the earth from the fixed stars to be infinitely great, compared with its distance from the centre of the universe — but, on the contrary, this distance to be very considerable, when compared with the orbits of the planets—then all the phenomena may be just as well ex-

plained by supposing the earth to revolve on its axis from west to east in 24 hours, and to have, besides this, a motion of translation in its orbit—as by supposing the earth immoveable, while the sun, planets, and fixed stars revolve around it. That the earth itself is a mere point, compared with the distance of the fixed stars, was admitted; but Copernicus well remarked, that it by no means followed that the earth is at rest in the centre of the universe. On the contrary, he says it seems the more extraordinary that such a vast circumference should revolve in 24 hours, rather than this mere point within it, the earth. He puts in a very forcible manner the illustration of the apparent motion of bodies, when the real motion is unperceived in ourselves, as in a ship; and objects to the Aristotelian notion of the earth's centre being the centre of gravity of the universe. He represents gravity as nothing else than the tendency of parts to draw together and coalesce in the form of a globe; and observes that it is probable such a tendency exists in the sun, moon, and other heavenly bodies, but does not hinder them from describing their respective orbits. He then explains the solar system at length, pointing out the way in which it simply and satisfactorily accounts for all the apparent motions of the planets, especially their stationary points and retrogradations, as seen from the earth, itself in motion. As he still held as a truth the peripatetic hypothesis of the circular form of the celestial orbits, he was obliged to adopt the epicycles, so far as to account for the obvious deviations of the orbits from perfect circles; and his system was needlessly complicated by a fanciful hypothesis which he made to explain the cause of the precession of equinoxes; nor did he discard the trepidation. With these defects, however, the Copernican system will always be esteemed, as giving, at least in its general outline, a correct and elevated conception of the great system of the planetary orbits. It was

based upon the only kind of argument which could in that age have been adduced; namely, that it completely explained the phenomena which observation had revealed, and that it did so with infinitely greater simplicity than any hypothesis hitherto proposed. The objections which had been brought against it on the grounds of the Aristotelian physics were completely answered; and it was even defended on principles, which its opponents of that school would be the last to call in question. The philosopher dedicated the great work containing his theory (*De Revolutionibus Orbium Cœlestium*) to the pope, in order, as he says, 'that the authority of the head of the Church might silence the calumnies of individuals who attacked his views by arguments drawn from religion;' but in a few hours after a completed copy of the book was brought to him, he was seized with a violent hæmorrhage, which terminated his valuable life, 1543, at the age of 71. It should here be noted that Copernicus had never feared opposition either from the heads of the Church or from the regular clergy: they were sufficiently promoters of science to be wholly his friends, and the purity and piety of his life had kept them so: it was from the bigotry and ignorance of the then secular clergy and mendicant friars that he had expected hostility.

THOMAS CROMWELL (1490—1540) was son of a blacksmith, and born at Putney, Surrey. By some means he became clerk to the English factory at Antwerp, and then entered the service of Wolsey as an amanuensis, through whose interest he obtained a post, which soon enabled him to gain a seat in parliament. On his patron's disgrace 1529, he defended his character in the house, and obtained the throwing out of the treason-bill against him; and Henry VIII. then gave him a situation in the royal household. He hereupon seems to have lost sight of every principle but that of studying how best to please the capricious Henry's humour; and

his extortion of 120,000*l.* from the clergy, by involving them all in a charge of *præmunire*, on pretence of the illegality of the oath of allegiance taken to the pope by the bishops on consecration, was his first unjustifiable proceeding to raise him money. In 1534, he became principal secretary of state, and master of the rolls; and in 1535, he was appointed visitor-general of the monasteries, in order to their suppression; and in this latter office he acted with great severity and injustice, and numerous instances are related of the illegal violence with which he forced a surrender from the monks and nuns. He was now made keeper of the privy-seal, and a peer, as lord Cromwell of Okeham; and on the abolition of papal supremacy, he was placed at the head of the ecclesiastical affairs of the kingdom, as the king's vicar-general. He caused articles of religion to be published by the royal authority, differing greatly from those of the old church, acknowledging only three sacraments, and speaking doubtfully of purgatory; and for his services in this way he was made knight of the garter, earl of Essex, and lord high chamberlain. The nobility, however, became jealous that one of so mean birth had been admitted into their order; the clergy considered him as their greatest enemy; and he made himself more odious by his unjust proceedings in procuring bills in parliament for the condemnation of persons on the charge of treason, without a hearing; among whom the countess of Salisbury, and marchioness of Exeter, of the blood royal, were sentenced to death. He at length fell into disgrace with the king, for the interest he had taken, with a view to strengthen the reformed party, in promoting his marriage with Anne of Cleve, who was a Lutheran; and on Henry's alliance with the Howard family, then the chief of the catholics, he was arrested at the council-table on a charge of treason, and committed to the Tower. Though he wrote a pathetic letter to the king,

praying for mercy, he was beheaded on Tower-hill, in his 51st year, July 28, 1540; declaring that he died in the faith of the old church, from which he lamented that he had been seduced.

ULRIC ZWINGLE (Zuinglius) was the son of an Helvetic peasant, who rose to the dignity of first magistrate of his district. Displaying studious habits, Ulric was sent to the university of Basle; and when, as a preacher, he had favoured the reformed doctrines, he was chosen lecturer in the cathedral of Zurich, 1518. The people of Zurich, under his direction, having declared for the reformation, 1524, he was ordered to draw up a plan for the new church; and he soon extended his opinions over Berne. The other cantons refused to admit him, and even took up arms against his partisans; and though the treaty of Coppel, 1529, restored peace for awhile, the reformer was at length himself induced to use the sword. He therefore joined a party of Zurichers, and was mortally wounded in a conflict which ensued with the Swiss, 1531; and being found by his adversaries in the field, not yet dead, they despatched him, and a military tribunal ordered his body to be burned. Thus, at the age of 47, closed the career of the most rational of all the reformers, the most enlightened, calm, humane, and able. He went as much beyond Luther in learning and temper, as he excelled Calvin in humanity; and he had the merit of modelling his new faith as closely as possible to the rule of the Scriptures. He neither kept some traditions and supererogatory tenets as Luther did, nor invented new opinions like Calvin; but he swept away everything which he considered not positively authorized by the word of God. Luther had ever been singularly inimical to Zwingle and his opinions; and that champion of the reformation thus indecently gloried over his death. 'This then is the second judgment of God; the first in Munzer's, the last in Zwingle's

fate. I was a prophet when I told that God would not long bear with their mad and furious blasphemies, mocking him as they did. Surely this is to show that God manifests by such wonders of his wrath, the hatred which he bore to those accursed spirits.'

LUIGI CORNARO (1466—1566), whose family gave three doges to the oligarchy, was born at Venice, but was deprived, through the jealousy of his relations, of the dignity of a noble Venetian, and retired to Padua. By living freely in his youth he injured his health, rather than his fortune, which was large, and of which he eventually made good use, by encouraging the arts, and relieving the distressed. Being wholly given over by his physicians at the age of 40, he resolved to try what diet would do; and he has written a book to show how, by limiting his supply of food to 12 ounces of solid animal and vegetable nutriment, and 14 ounces of liquid daily, he restored his health, and eventually lived to 100, practically illustrating the axiom, 'that no man ever repented of having eaten too little.' He curiously tells that, when advised by his anxious friends, at 80, to add four ounces to his daily allowance, he fell into a fever, which he recovered only by returning to his accustomed quantity of food. Cornaro's case would seem to establish one fact connected with the animal economy; namely, that it is far more necessary to pay attention to the quantity than the quality of food for the preservation of health. Yet the lively old Venetian warmly attacks the axiom, 'that what the taste approves, the stomach will digest,' and sensibly enough—as the maxim is of that usual order condemned by the witty Montesquieu: '*Il y a des choses, que tout le monde dit, parcequ'elles ont été dites une fois*,'—and for no other reason whatever. Mr. Abernethy, the founder of scientific surgery, by constantly recommending the perusal of Cornaro's book to his patients, occasioned it to be suddenly

in wonderful demand in England, and to run through several editions. Cornaro married a lady of the family of Spittemberg, at Udina, by whom he had an only daughter, Clara; and though aged at her birth, he lived to see his offspring to the third generation. He died at Padua, aged exactly 100, 1566. His book is, in one respect, highly valuable; inasmuch as it holds out comfort for those advanced in years, and, like the ancient philosophy, places much of the pleasure of life in the serenity, cheerfulness, dignity, and wisdom of a well-ordered old age. Among its maxims to enforce a spare diet, in order to insure such blessings, are two, which all would do well to remember: '*Qui multum vult comedere, comedat parum*'—and—'*Plus juvat cibus qui superest comedenti, quàm qui ab illo comestus*.'

LUDOVICO ARIOSTO (1474—1532) was born at Reggio, of a noble family; and devoting himself to the muses, kept about the court of his relative, the duke of Ferrara, and at length resided with cardinal Hippolito d'Este, the duke's brother. After being some time governor of a province in the Appennines, he built himself a house at Ferrara; and, with the exception of being called forth to be crowned at Mantua with the laurel by Charles V., passed the remainder of his life there, in the quiet composition of his works, dying, aged 58, 1532. His great production is the '*Orlando Furioso*,' which for invention, facility, and poetical beauties of every kind, must ever maintain a lofty rank among the productions of human genius. It is a tissue of chivalric adventures in love and arms, with all the wild accompaniments of enchantment, transformation, supernatural events, and sometimes of even moral and religious allegory. There is, however, much licence in the work; and the attacks on the then pope and clergy are acknowledged by historians as highly unjust.

CORREGGIO (1496—1534), properly *Antonio Allegri*, was born at Correggio

in Modena, of poor parents, and displayed from almost infancy a talent for painting. His poverty never permitted him to see Rome, so that he had not the advantage of the finest models; and his native genius was therefore displayed by his labours for the cathedral of Parma. That edifice is filled with the productions of his easel; and his greatest work, the Assumption of the Virgin, embellishes the interior of the dome. A story is told of the ingratitude of the canons, who not only refused to pay the painter the agreed price of his performances, but liquidated the debt in copper money: this Corregio is stated to have carried home on his head on a sultry day to his starving family at Corregio near Parma; an exertion which, together with slaking his thirst on the way in a cold spring, brought on a pleurisy, of which he died, aged 38, 1534. The paintings of Corregio, among which are the Holy Family, Magdalene, Notte, and St. Jerome, are celebrated for the colouring of the flesh, masterly foreshortening, and generally tasteful arrangement. Annibal Caracci, half a century after, made him his model; and the great Titian, parodying the speech of Alexander, declared 'that were he not Titian, he should wish to be Corregio.'

JULIO ROMANO (1492 — 1546), whose proper name was *Pippi*, the favourite disciple of *Rafaelle*, was born at Rome, and distinguished himself both as a painter and architect. He was patronized by Leo X. and Clement VII.; and after adorning the churches of the Capitol with his highly finished paintings, went to Mantua, whose edifices his genius in like manner beautified, and where he died, aged 54, 1546. His most famous work as a painter is a saloon, wherein the destruction of the giants by Jupiter is represented in fresco. He was defective in colouring; but his designs display extraordinary fertility of invention, and grandeur of taste, united with a vast fund of know-

ledge respecting everything connected with his art.

LOUIS BRABANT.—This person, the fool of Francis I. of France, was the first who occasioned *ventriloquism* to be made a matter of philosophical investigation, by his successful practice of the art. He died, aged 46, in the same year with his royal master, 1547. Some faint allusions to *ventriloquism* are to be found in ancient authors; and there is little doubt that the responses of the oracles were often delivered by *ventriloquists*. The term implies 'speaking from the stomach'; but the proficients appear to speak more frequently from the pockets of their neighbours, or from the roof or distant corners of the room, than from their own mouths or stomachs. Louis Brabant obtained a rich wife by making a voice seem to come from the ceiling, directing the mother of his bride to give her daughter to him; the *ventriloquist* exhibiting no change of countenance as he sat in the room, and his lips remaining closed and motionless. The marriage-contract requiring some show of money on his own part, Brabant went to work upon a fresh subject,—one Cornu, an old banker at Lyons, who had accumulated immense wealth by usury and extortion, and was known to be haunted by a remorse of conscience on account of the manner in which he had acquired it. Having contracted an intimate acquaintance with this man, he, one day while they were sitting together in the usurer's back parlour, artfully turned the conversation to religious subjects, spectres, the pains of purgatory, and the torments of hell. During an interval of silence between them, a voice was heard, which, to the astonished banker, seemed to be that of his deceased father, complaining of his dreadful situation in purgatory, and calling upon him to deliver him instantly, by putting into the hands of Louis Brabant, then with him, a large sum for the redemption of Christians in slavery

with the Turks. An old usurer is naturally suspicious. Accordingly the wary banker made a second appointment with the ghost's delegate, for the next day ; and to render any design of imposing upon him abortive, took him into the open fields, where not a house, or a tree, or even a bush or pit were in sight, capable of screening any supposed confederate. This extraordinary caution excited the ventriloquist to exert all the powers of his art. Wherever the banker conducted him, his ears were saluted with the complaints and groans, not only of his father, but of all his deceased relations, imploring him, in the name of all the saints, to have mercy on his own soul and their's, by effectually seconding with his purse the intentions of his worthy companion. Cornu could no longer resist, and accordingly carried his guest home with him, and paid him 10,000 crowns down ; with which the ventriloquist returned to Paris, and married. The secret was afterwards disclosed, and reached the usurer's ears, who was so much affected by the loss of his money, and the mortifying raileries of his neighbours, that he took to his bed and died. A Scotsman a few years ago became celebrated as a ventriloquist, and once at Edinburgh astonished a number of persons in the fish-market, by making a fish appear to speak, and give the lie to its vender, who affirmed that it was fresh, and caught in the morning. Mons. Alexandre, a still more recent exhibitor, is thought to have taken the palm even from Brabant. A coach was passing out of a town in Yorkshire, empty inside, and having five outside passengers, besides the coachman. On a sudden a voice was heard calling out to the driver to stop : the man accordingly drew up, descended from his box, but looked about in vain for his expected passenger. He remounted, and began to move onwards, when three or four voices were heard, exclaiming, ' Stop ! stop ! ' An old woman's and

a child's were particularly audible. Again the coach stopped, again the conductor descended — no human creature was to be seen. The passengers, as well as the coachman, began to express some alarm, fearing something beyond natural agency. However they drove on, and were just beginning to ascend a hill, when a voice, as if from the inside, cried out, ' Put me down here ! I must get out ! ' The coachman knew no one could be inside, and vociferating pretty heartily, ' the devil ! ' leaped from his seat, and ran up the hill with all his might, leaving the affrighted passengers to shift for themselves. At length M. Alexandre, who was one of them, convinced the rest of his powers, told who he was, and undeceived poor Jehu, when they got to a neighbouring inn, to which he had fled for refuge. Another of his attempts was attended with disastrous consequences, and is thus related by Hogg, the Ettrick Shepherd. ' There were three men and a very handsome girl loading an immense cart of hay. We walked on, and at length this moving hay-stack overtook us. I remember it well, with a black horse in the shafts, and a fine light grey one in the traces. We made very slow progress ; for Nae-smith would never cease sketching, or stopping us to admire the scenery of nature. Indeed our progress was so slow, that up came the great Lothian peasant sitting upon the hay, lashing on his team, and whistling his tune. We walked on side by side for awhile, I think about half a mile, when all at once a child began to cry in the middle of the hay. I declare I was cheated myself ; for though I was walking alongside of Alexandre, I thought there was a child among the hay ; for it cried with a kind of half smothered breath, that I am sure there never was such a deception practised in this world. ' What is the meaning of this ? ' said Terry, ' you are smothering a child among your hay. ' The poor fellow,

rough and burly as was his outer man, was so much appalled at the idea of taking infant life, that he exclaimed in a half articulate voice, 'I wonder how they could fork a bairn up to me fra the meadow, an' me never ken!' And without taking time to descend to loose his cart-ropes, he cut them through the middle, and turned off his hay, roll after roll, with the utmost expedition. Still the child kept crying, almost under his hands and feet. He was even obliged to set his feet on each side of the cart, for fear of trampling the poor infant to death. At length, when he had turned the greater part of the hay off upon the road, the child fell a crying most bitterly among the hay, on which the poor fellow (his name was Sandy Burnet) jumped off the cart in the greatest trepidation. 'Od! I hae thrawn the poor thing ower!' exclaimed he. 'I'se warrant its killed'—and he began to shake the hay with the greatest caution. I and one of my companions went forward to assist him. 'Stand back! stand back!' cried he, 'ye'll maybe tramp its life out: I'll look for it mysel.' But after he had shaken out the whole of the hay, no child was to be found. I never saw looks of such amazement as Sandy Burnet's then were. He seemed to have lost all comprehension of everything in this world; and I was obliged myself to go on to the brow of the hill, and call some of the haymakers to come and assist in loading the cart again. We got the cart loaded once more, knitted the ropes firmly, and set out; but we had not proceeded an hundred yards, before the child fell a-crying again among the hay, with more choking screams than ever. 'Gudeness have a care of us! heard ever ony leevin the like o' that! I declare the creature's there again!' cried Sandy, and flinging himself from the cart with a summerset, he ran off, and never once looked over his shoulder as long as he was in our sight. We were very sorry to hear afterwards that he

fled all the way into the highlands of Perthshire, where he still lives in a deranged state of mind. We dined at 'The Hunter's Tryste,' and spent the afternoon in hilarity: but such a night of fun as M. Alexandre made us I never witnessed, and I never shall again. The family at the inn consisted of the landlord, his wife, and her daughter; and I am sure that family never spent an afternoon of such astonishment and terror, from the day they were united until death parted them—though they may be all living yet, for anything that I know. Alexandre made people of all ages and sexes speak from every part of the house, from under the beds, from the basin-stands, and from the garret, where a dreadful quarrel took place. And then he placed a bottle on the top of the clock, and made a child scream out of it, and declare that the mistress had corked it in there to murder it. The daughter ran and opened the bottle, and looked into it, and then losing all power, from amazement, let it fall, and smashed it to pieces. He made a bee buz round my head, until I struck at it several times, and had nearly felled myself. Then there was a drunken man came to the door, and insisted, in a rough obstreperous manner, on being let in to shoot Mr. Hogg; on which the landlord ran to the door and bolted it, and ordered the man to go about his business, for there was no room in the house, and there he should not enter on any account. We all heard the voice of the man going round and round the house, grumbling, swearing, and threatening; and all the while, Alexandre was just standing with his back to us at the room door, always holding his hand to his mouth, but nothing else. The people ran to the windows to see the drunken man go by; and Miss Jane even ventured to the corner of the house to look after him; but neither drunken man nor any other was to be seen. At length, on calling her in to serve us with some wine and toddy, we heard

the drunken man's voice at the top of the chimney. Such a state of amazement as Jane was in I never beheld. 'But ye need nae be feared gentlemen,' said she, 'for I'll defy him to win down. The door's boltit an' lockit, an' the vent o' the lumb is nae sae wide as that jug.' However, down he came, and down he came, until his voice actually seemed to be coming out of the grate. Jane ran for it, saying, 'He is winning down, I believe after a'! he is surely the deil!' Alexandre went to the chimney, and in his own natural voice ordered the fellow to go about his business, for into our party he should not be admitted; and, if he forced himself in, he would shoot him through the heart. The voice then went again, grumbling and swearing, up the chimney. We actually heard him hurling down over the slates, and afterwards his voice dying away in the distance, as he vanished into Mr. Trotter's plantations.'

CONTEMPORARIES. — *Hernan Magellan*, a Portuguese, in the service of Charles V. of Spain, was the first to conduct an expedition round the world; in which he discovered the straits at the south of South America, which bear his name, 1519. He lost his life in a skirmish with the natives of one of the Philippine Isles, 1521. *Desiderius Erasmus*, born at Rotterdam, became a monk and polemical writer. His share in effecting the Reformation, by his numerous works, was great, insomuch that it was said 'he laid the egg which Luther only hatched;' but he aimed at purifying, not separating from the Church, and died in her communion. He was an admirably free Latin writer, and is now best known by his 'Enchiridion Militis Christiani.' He frequently visited England, on whose great men he relied for support, was some time lady Margaret's professor of divinity at Cambridge, and died poor at Basle, aged 69, 1536. *Bartolomeo de Las Casas*, a noble and excellent Spanish prelate, famous for his attempts to relieve the native Indians of the

Spanish colony of Hispaniola from the oppressive system of *repartimientos*, adopted by Fernando of Aragon, and enforced by the governor, Albuquerque. The unfortunate creatures were sold in lots, like cattle, to the highest bidders; and so great became the mortality among them, that between 1508 and 1516, their number was reduced from 60,000 to 14,000. It was just before Las Casas' time that African negroes had been occasionally used at Hispaniola; and as every one of them was able to do the work of four native Indians, the practice of stealing slaves from the old world became soon after established throughout the West Indies. Las Casas, though he sailed to and from his native country several times for the sole purpose, was at last unable to effect his benevolent object. He was made bishop of Chiapa, in the newly-conquered empire of Mexico, 1540, by Charles V.; but died a monk at Madrid, aged 92, 1566. *Francesco Berni*, of Tuscany, became secretary to cardinal Ippolito de Medici, and took orders. He is only known as the founder of Italian jocular poetry, from him styled 'Poesia Bernesca,' and died, aged 46, 1536. *Peter Bembo*, born of a noble family at Venice, became secretary to pope Leo X., and was made a cardinal by Paul III. He contributed greatly to elevate the style and imagery of Italian poetry, and wrote Latin with classic purity; but his works are all too secular for an ecclesiastic. He died, aged 77, 1547. *Nicolas Machiavelli*, born of noble parents at Florence, became a distinguished diplomatic character; and was especially employed by his state to keep Louis XII. on its side, against Cesare Borgia. Having, in 1501, passed three months in the camp of the latter, he obtained an insight into a system of policy which he afterwards set forth in his 'Del Principe.' After embroiling himself in the parties of his country, he died, aged 58, 1527. Machiavelli's book was clearly written against his conscience, to support the

tyranny of Florence. Cesare Borgia is declared the model of the perfect ruler he describes ; and the principles of despotism, expediency, and chicanery which he advocates, have, under the title of 'Machiavelism,' been understood to embody all that is crooked and perfidious in political rule. *Cesare Borgia* was the natural son of Rodriguez Borgia, eventually pope Alexander VI., and was made a cardinal by his father. He is accused of having assassinated his own brother, the duke of Gandia, and of many like atrocities, to carry out his plan of becoming lord of all Italy, under protection of the Roman see ; but on the death of pope Alexander, 1503, he was seized by Gonzalo de Cordova, and sent to Spain, where Ferdinand kept him two years a prisoner. He then escaped, and was killed in a skirmish at Viana, near the Ebro, in the ranks of his brother-in-law John d'Albret, king of Navarre, 1507. *Philippe de Comines*, son of a general in the service of Philip of Burgundy, was brought up at the court of his son, Charles the Bold, to whom he was chief councillor when Louis XI. was entrapped by him at Peronne, 1468. As the king was released at his suggestion, Louis, when Comines had quitted the service of Charles, gave him large estates and a rich wife in France ; but after that monarch's death, the regency during the minority of Charles VIII. arrested him for supporting the cause of the duke of Orleans (afterwards Louis XII.), who had wished to be sole regent. He was shut up for some months in an iron cage at Loches, and his property was confiscated ; but Charles, when older, took him into favour, and he accompanied that king in his Italian campaign, which closed 1495. As Louis XII., who succeeded 1498, did not notice the man who had been ruined in his cause, Comines devoted his remaining years to his 'Memoirs,' a fearless relation of the events of Louis XI.'s and Charles VIII.'s reign. He, of course, speaks more favourably of

Louis XI. than other historians. *François Rabelais*, born in Touraine, became a Franciscan monk, and left that and subsequently the order of St. Benedict, through his immoral conduct. He then turned physician at Lyons ; but he is now only known for his filthy and lying satire on the monks, styled 'A History of Gargantua and Pantagruel.' Cardinal de Bellay very injudiciously induced him at last to take orders ; and he died curé of Meudon, aged 70, 1553. *Polydore Virgil*, born at Urbino, in Italy, came to England, was made archdeacon of Wells by Henry VIII., and wrote an inaccurate history of England in elegant Latin. Wolsey having imprisoned him, because his patron Corneto had solicited the see of York, he returned to Italy, and died at Rome 1555. *Gaston de Foix*, nephew of Louis XII., was commander of the French army in Italy, 1512, and obtained the title of 'Thunderbolt of Italy' for his prowess. He was laying siege to Ravenna when killed by a cannon-ball, just as he had defeated the Spaniards, on Easter-day, 1512, aged 23. *St. Theresa*, regarded as the head of modern mystics, was born at Avila in Spain, and, after reading the lives of the saints, clandestinely left home to seek death among the Moors. She was recovered by her brother ; at 22 took the veil among the Carmelite nuns at Avila, 1537 ; and at length formed a stricter order of Carmelites, both for men and women, the men being called 'barefooted friars,' from wearing sandals in lieu of shoes. She died, aged 67, 1582. The writings of St. Theresa are regarded by spiritualists of all churches as taking the lead of all productions of the mystic theology school, for fervid yet sober descriptions of things that usually defy description ; while the Spaniards themselves hold her as one of their most accomplished authors. *Francesco Guicciardini*, of a noble Florentine family, was promoted by popes Leo X. and Clement VII. to the government of various portions of the states

of the Church, and laboured greatly to reinstate the Medici family in Florence. He is famous for a history of Italy during his own time, which, though somewhat too prolix and sententious, is a sterling production. He died, aged 58, 1540. *Philip Melancthon*, the mildest of the German reformers, aided in drawing up the Confession of Augsburg, but laboured to prevent a separation from the Church. When his aged mother asked him if she must turn protestant, he said 'No, no, mother; go on as you have begun, and trouble not your head about controversies.' He died at Wittemberg, aged 63, 1560. *John Leland*, born in London, and educated at St. Paul's and Oxford, was commissioned by Henry VIII. to search for antique MSS., coins, &c., in all libraries, monasteries, &c.; and after six years' travel through England and Wales, collected materials for illustrating their archæology, which were digested and published by Hearne, 1720. He died, aged 52, 1552. *Paracelsus*, an alchemist and quack, born in Switzerland, began practising medicine at Basle, and performed astonishing cures with mercury, then little known. He has the merit of bringing that powerful mineral into general use; but he died in poverty, through the enmity of the German faculty towards empirics, aged 48, 1541. *Musurus*, a Cretan by birth, became a celebrated Greek professor at Venice, and was made archbishop of Malvasia by Leo X. He died in a year after his promotion, aged only 36, 1517. *Hector Boethius*, born at Dundee, became principal of Aberdeen college, of the bishops of which diocese he wrote the lives, as well as a credulous history of Scotland. He died 1530, aged 60. *Paul Jovius*, born at Como, was patronised for his learning by Francis I., and eventually became bishop of Nocera, dying 1552, aged 69. His history of his Own Times, from 1494 to 1544, gives an interesting account of the then state of the continent, especially of Italy, but it contains many *ex parte* tales,

which deserve little credit. *Andreas Alciati*, of Milan, a celebrated lecturer on law, who, by the patronage of Francis I. and his own sovereign, amassed great wealth. He is now best known by his elegant and talented 'Emblems.' He died 1550, aged 58. *Julius Cæsar Scaliger*, of Verona, abandoned the army at 40 for literature. He wrote notes on Theophrastus, attacked Cardan on Subtily, and practised physic for his maintenance; dying, aged 74, 1558. *William Tyndall*, born in Wales, and educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, adopted the Lutheran opinions; but, fearing the old church party, went to Antwerp to print his translation of the New Testament. Being seized as a heretic, he was first strangled, and then burnt, 1536. *Juan Luis Vives*, of Valencia, in Spain, came to England, and taught Latin to Mary, daughter of Henry VIII.; but was imprisoned for writing against the divorce of Catherine of Aragon. When released, he returned to Spain, and died 1540, aged 48. *Gavin Douglas*, the forerunner of the revival of literature in Scotland, became bishop of Dunkeld, 1515, and died of the plague, 1522. His chief work is a poetical translation of the *Æneid*. *Filippo Brunelleschi*, a Florentine goldsmith, who practised architecture as an amusement, and built the dome of St. Mary's church in his own city. He died, aged 67, 1444. *Henry Cornelius Agrippa*, of a noble Cologne family, was knighted after seven years' service in the imperial army, but suddenly quitted arms to study astrology and medicine. He also entered into the fight of the reformation; and writing against Henry's divorce from Catherine, ridiculed his contemporaries, 'whose religious opinions yielded to the gold and the lust of a tyrant.' His most celebrated works are, a Commentary on St. Paul's Epistles, and a Treatise on the Excellence of Women; which last obtained him the protection of Margaret of Austria, governess of the Netherlands. He died, aged 48, 1535. *Alexander ab*

Alexandro, a jurisconsult of Naples, known for his attention to general literature. His chief work is 'Genialium Dierum,' in imitation of the 'Noctes Atticæ' of Gellius. He died 1527. *William Grocyn*, of Bristol, was educated at Winchester, and New College, Oxford, took orders, travelled in Italy, and became professor of Greek in his university. He wrote little, but greatly advanced the reviving taste for Greek literature, and died, 1522, master of Allhallows College, Maidstone. *Aldus Manutius*, of Bassano, was the first to print Greek with elegance, invented the italic letter, and his editions of the classics were long the best. He died at Venice, 1516. *John Reuchlin*, a German, who contributed by his writings to restore learning. He has the credit of introducing the study of Hebrew to modern Christians, and was author of the capital 'Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum.' He died, aged 67, 1522. *Guillaume Budée*, called Budeus, born at Paris, of a wealthy family, after a life of extraordinary dissipation, became a deep student, the patron of literature, and the projector of the royal college, and other learned foundations in France. He was high in the favour of Francis I., whose ambassador he was once to Leo X., and died, aged 73, 1640. *John Speisshamer*, better known as Cuspinian, a German physician at the court of Maximilian I., acted as a diplomatist, and as keeper of the royal Vienna library. His histories of the Roman emperors, and Turks, are still popular in Germany. He died 1529. *Lucrezia Borgia*, sister of Cesare, was betrothed when a child to a Spanish noble; but her father, on becoming pope, married her to Giovanni Sforza, lord of Pesaro, whose wife she had been four years, when her father divorced her, to give her to Alfonso, duke of Bisceglia, 1498, natural son of Alfonso II. of Naples. In 1500 the duke of Bisceglia was attacked on the steps of St. Peter's by assassins, and stabbed in several places; of which wounds he died in two months.

As Cesare had been accused of murdering his eldest brother, John, duke of Gandia, so was his sister's husband's death imputed to him; and, as if that were not enough, he was accused of entertaining a criminal love for Lucrezia, which was assigned as the cause of Bisceglia's assassination. Lucrezia next married Alfonso d'Este, son of the duke of Ferrara; and when she became duchess of Ferrara by the decease of her father-in-law, she was celebrated as the munificent patroness of learning, and the assiduous performer of all the duties of devotion and charity. Doubtless her fame is sullied alone by having lived in the atmosphere of the court of her licentious father—the worst of the popes. She died highly respected by the Ferrarese, 1528.

SOVEREIGNS. — TURKEY. — 1481, Bayezid II.; 1512, Selim I.; 1520, Suleiman II. POPES. — 1503, Julius II.; 1513, Leo X.; 1522, Adrian VI.; 1523, Clement VII.; 1534, Paul III. SCOTLAND. — 1488, James IV.; 1513, James V.; 1542, Mary Stuart. FRANCE. — 1498, Louis XII.; 1515, Francis I.; 1547, Henri II. SWEDEN. — 1523, Gustavus Vasa. DENMARK AND NORWAY. — 1481, John I.; 1513, Christiern II. DENMARK ALONE. — 1523, Frederick I.; 1534, Christiern III. PORTUGAL. — 1495, Emanuel; 1521, John III. GERMANY. — 1493, Maximilian I.; 1519, Charles V. SPAIN. — 1479, Ferdinand and Isabella; 1516, Charles I. POLAND. — 1506, Sigismund I. RUSSIA. — 1505, Vasil IV.; 1533, Ivan IV., first czar. NAVARRE. — 1483, Catherine and John d'Albret; 1511, part united to Spain; 1516, Henry d'Albret. PERSIA. — 1502, Ismail the Sage; 1523, Tamasp I. DELHI. — 1488, Sekandar; 1517, Ibrahim; 1526, Baber; 1530, Humayun II.; 1542, Shir Shah; 1545, Selim Shah. HUNGARY. — 1490, Ladislaus VI.; 1516, Lewis II.; 1526, John Zapolski; 1527, Ferdinand I. of Austria, emperor. BOHEMIA. — 1471, Ladislaus II.; 1516, Lewis II.; 1526, Ferdinand I. emperor. Bohemia added to

the empire. **EGYPT.**—Under the | soldan, and made Egypt a province
Borgite Mamluks till 1517; when | of Turkey, which it remained till
Selim I. dethroned Tomaun Bey, the | 1841.

REIGN CLXI.

EDWARD VI., KING OF ENGLAND.

1547 TO 1553—6 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Edward VI. was born at Hampton Court Palace 1537, being the son of Henry VIII. by Jane Seymour. He was only nine when his father died; at which period he had made good progress in the classics, Italian, French, and Spanish, and was a remarkably fair and beautiful boy. He was a pious youth; and continually kept a journal of his actions, which is still preserved in the British Museum. Out of part of the proceeds of the many religious foundations so ruthlessly destroyed by his father, he founded what are called the royal hospitals in London; establishments which have been a blessing to the country. As a proof of his early sense of propriety, we may name his refusal, when very young, to stand upon a large bible, which an attendant placed so as to enable him to look out of a window.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—The reign of Edward commenced 1547, and was both brief and tumultuous. His maternal uncle (brother of Jane Seymour), the earl of Hertford, had been appointed by Henry's will the chief guardian of his son and protector of the realm, with 15 subordinate co-regents; and the earl, soon after being created duke of Somerset by Edward, engaged in a quarrel with the Scots, because they opposed his project of uniting Edward to their young queen Mary. The protector even marched an army into their country, and gained the battle of Pinkey or Musselburgh, 1547; but the Scots nevertheless removed their queen to France, and contracted her to the dauphin. Meanwhile Somerset's own brother, Thomas Lord Seymour, the lord high admiral, opposed his government; and his conduct being thought treasonable, the duke unnaturally commanded his execution. Many disturbances followed, arising from the divided state of public opinion in matters of religion; it being no uncommon thing for one portion of a family to embrace protestantism, while the remainder adhered to the ancient faith.

The conduct of the heads of the newly-founded church, especially the severity of Cranmer, tended likewise to banish peace from society; for now that most of the six articles were abandoned, in fact all but the real presence, the new system was regarded in its turn as so infallible, that its promulgators would bear no contradiction with regard to it. The same men who had ventured to renounce opinions which had been deemed certain, sacred, and unalterable during so many centuries, were now ready to burn in the same flames from which themselves had so narrowly escaped, every one that had the assurance to oppose them. A commission of council was granted 1548 to Cranmer as primate, and under him to others, to examine and search after all anabaptists, heretics, or contemners of the book of common prayer; and among those brought before the commissioners was Joan Bocher, called the maid of Kent, who maintained that Christ was not truly incarnate of the Virgin, or he would have been born in sin, which he could not be; but that merely by the assent of the inward man of the Virgin, the Word was made flesh. In vain did Cranmer and his coadjutors argue with her on the error of the notion, and she was at last condemned to the stake. King Edward, however, though in such tender years, displayed on the occasion more sense

than the primate and his party; for he absolutely refused to sign the warrant for Joan's execution. After a long sitting of the commissioners, Cranmer took upon himself to go unattended to the young monarch, and persuade him to compliance; and among other arguments, he said, 'that there was a great difference between errors in other points of divinity, and those which were directly contradictory to the apostles' creed. These latter were impieties against God, which the prince, being God's deputy, ought to repress, in like manner as the king's deputies were bound to punish offences against the king's person.' Edward, overcome by importunity more than reason, at last submitted, though with tears in his eyes; and he told Cranmer passionately 'that if any wrong was done, the guilt should lie entirely on his head.' The primate, after making an effort to reclaim the woman, finding her obstinate against all his arguments, at last committed her to the flames, 1549. Some time after, a Dutchman, called Van Paris, accused of Arianism, was condemned by the same tribunal to the same punishment; and he suffered with so much satisfaction, that he hugged and caressed the faggots which were consuming him. These rigorous proceedings soon brought the whole nation to a conformity, seeming or real, with the new doctrine and the new liturgy. The lady Mary alone continued to adhere to the mass, refused to admit the novel modes of worship, and when pressed and menaced on this head, applied to the emperor; who, using his interest with Sir Philip Hobby, the English ambassador, procured her a temporary connivance from the council.

But not only did religious disputes disturb the general tranquillity. There had been a great oppression of the poorer classes during the former reign; and it continued under Edward, by an abridgment, consequent upon the dissolution of religious houses, of the right of commonage. (*See Kett's Rebellion*.) Serious insurrections began on this account in different parts of the country, and were with difficulty suppressed; and at length Somerset's administration, which was alleged to be the cause of this and other evils, raised up jealousies and powerful enmities. The duke himself, being accused by Dudley, earl of Warwick, and other noblemen envious of his authority, of usurping the sovereign power, was brought to the block 1552; and Dudley, who had succeeded as duke of Northumberland, was chosen protector in his place. The latter finding the king's health declining, considered this a favourable moment to promote his own ambitious projects; and he accordingly represented to Edward that his sisters Mary and Elizabeth had been declared illegitimate by the parliament, while the queen of Scots stood excluded by his father's will. Under these circumstances, the succession naturally devolved to the marchioness of Dorset, younger sister of Henry VIII., whose daughter, lady Jane Grey, was every way accomplished for government. Having prevailed upon Edward, therefore, to settle the crown in this manner, he obtained the dukedom of Suffolk for lord Dorset, and induced that nobleman to give his daughter, lady Jane, to his own son, lord Guildford Dudley, in marriage. The illegitimacy of his two sisters was confirmed by Edward's signature to a patent appointing lady Jane Grey his successor; and the document was countersigned by most of the royal council, including even Cranmer, in spite of the last will of Henry, which declared his daughters (though by law natural born) heirs after Edward, should he die without issue.

The king's death was now evidently near at hand; and it was even suspected that Northumberland, who would not suffer any but his own emissaries to be near his person, had contributed to hasten it; especially as no one acted in a medical capacity about the prince but an ignorant woman, who had very confidently undertaken his cure. Edward expired at Greenwich,

July 6th, 1553, in the 16th year of his age; and was buried in Westminster Abbey, near the body of Henry VII., his grandfather, with great funeral pomp, and much unfeigned lamentation.

EVENTS.

FOUNDATION OF THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND.—The year 1552, wherein the Common Prayer Book was declared by legal enactment to contain the only authorized form of public worship of the nation, is regarded as the era of the Church of England—of the purified portion of the Holy Apostolic Church Catholic of Christ. The Hierarchy of the Church Catholic had ever claimed for itself a perfect insulated independence of the civil power of states: as its temporal strength increased under the popes, it even granted protection to, and may be said to have at times wholly propped and supported, the secular arm: but its English branch, so soon as it had painfully effected its separation from the parent stock, consented to derive its temporal authority from the state, whose constant protection it claimed and was promised, in return for such renunciation of power. This coalition of the corporate body called 'the church,' with the civil power called 'the state,' in themselves naturally distinct, may be called a civil establishment for the perpetual maintenance and diffusion of religious truth; and as the grand objects of society are thereby effected, namely the religious and moral education of the poor, and a due restraint upon the manners and habits of the classes above them, such an institution possesses all the qualities of a sound civil principle.

Though kings are not necessarily, and have not always been, 'nursing fathers' of the Christian Church, we may be allowed to say a few words in defence of a system which, in England at least, has hitherto been productive of the greatest benefit to society. Nor should it be forgotten that religion was the grand principle of unity in all the political associations of ancient times: that the temple of Tyrian Hercules became the centre

of the Phœnician league, that of Jupiter Latialis of the Latin confederacy, and the festival of Olympian Jupiter the grand contracting tie of all the states of Greece. The bitterest political opponents acknowledged themselves children of one mother, while worshipping in the temples erected by the piety of their common ancestors.

All our religious knowledge has been derived from the labours of a body of men, who, educated after a certain and uniform standard, have been set apart to teach mankind the truths of the gospel. This body, composed originally of apostles, bishops, presbyters, and deacons, forming together the government, or ministering officers of what we term The Church, or rule of Christianity, found its rights acknowledged and protected by the civil power of each country as it was converted by it to the faith, the Roman emperors setting the example. By such acknowledgment and protection it became a most effective *corporation*, that is, what the law calls a moral and civil person living for ever; having always the same interests and identity, and, by means of the succession of its members, always being in a state of power to fulfil its functions. After receiving this legal incorporation, it continued to transmit the truths of revelation to successive generations; and the maintenance and transmission of these truths in their original integrity still constitutes its occupation from sabbath to sabbath, and will so constitute it from century to century, until time shall be no more.

Each of the 12,000 parishes of England, which on the average contain individually 3000 acres, or a piece of ground two miles square, has its appointed teacher: a person whose office it is to preach Christianity throughout the year, and whose prac-

tice it is to minister to all wants, spiritual and even temporal. The education and condition in life of this teacher give him almost necessarily the highest qualifications; and his worth in the eyes of the poor may be in a measure estimated, if we reflect upon their constant appeal to him when calamities of great or small moment befall them. The parsonage-house is, in rural districts, the hospital and almshouse of the village; and to the collision thus afforded between a well-educated family and the ignorant peasantry, beyond the instruction of the pulpit, the civilization of the country people is mainly attributable. Parsonages, and vicarage-houses are, in this respect, like oases in the desert; and were the system of filling them with the class which now occupies them abandoned, a return to savage manners on the part of the rustics would be the natural result. Studded over as England is with these centres of refinement, there is a security at once for the growth of the kindlier virtues in the breasts of the poor; while, from the same admirable arrangement, we have the best portion of a system of general education,—that portion which instructs men in their daily duty, and consoles them under the evils of life, by pointing out the certainty of a future and happier state. In this sense the church is emphatically the property of the poor; an endowment to which every man has a right of access; a gift of past generations, and costing nothing to the present.

In confirmation of what has been here alleged in favour of a state-religion, it may be briefly observed, in conclusion, that, as respects the Church of England, the majority of educated and thinking men in the nation agree in the belief of her having, by means of the support she has received from the civil power, and by the instrumentality of her many and excellent divines of all ages, preserved in her liturgy and articles the pure doctrines of the primitive apostolic church; to which they, at the same

time, feel assured she approaches nearer in spirit than any other ecclesiastical system in the world.

DISSENTERS FIRST DECLARED.

—When the Reformation was regarded as effected, there were seen plentiful divisions among the seceders from the ancient system; and the portion which had wisely instituted a church after the model of the repudiated one, abandoning only errors, had to contend with numerous nonconformist parties. Still only the general name of *nonconformists* was given to dissenters, and in a short time the term was changed to *puritans*; and this latter title marked those who refused to join the new church, down to the death of Charles I. Puritans then became visibly divided into *presbyterians* and *independents*; and soon after, a third distinctive party was known, the *baptists*, who had hitherto formed portions of all classes of nonconformists. These three were long regarded as the leading denominations of dissenters; to which, in process of time the *quakers* and *methodists* were added; and under one or other of the five varieties, it is thought all the other countless sects may be classed. The opinions of Baxter somewhat remoulded the dissenters at the revolution, for a time. (See *Baxter*.) The toleration of dissenters by the church of England began not until the revolution, 1688; from which period till 1828, they were gradually admitted to a participation in the rights of churchmen. In the latter year, the abolition of the corporation and test acts placed them nearly, and the subsequent relaxation of the marriage-law has put them quite on a level as to privileges with churchmen; at least as much so as it is possible they should be, without the abolition of the church.

THE KETTS' REBELLION IN NORFOLK, 1549. The people had begun to feel the loss of the monasteries. The monks, always residing in their convents, spent their money among their tenants, and were a sure resource to the poor and sick: like the

clergy of England in the present day, they were also the best and most indulgent landlords in the world. But when the abbey-lands were given to the nobility, rents were raised, ground, which had hitherto been common to all, was enclosed, and the farmers could find no market for their produce. The indigent too, in their utmost need, had no benignant friar to listen to their tale, to relieve their poverty, or assuage their sickness. Discontent against the government therefore manifested itself; and in Norfolk, one Kett, a tanner, and his brother, took up arms, and defeated the force sent to suppress his insurrection, killing lord Sheffield, the general. The earl of Warwick finally subdued the rebels, hanged one of the Ketts on the top of Warwick Castle, the other on the steeple of Wymondham Church, and nine of the most active on the boughs of an oak, under which the insurgents had first assembled, and which they had called the oak of reform.

THE FIVE ROYAL HOSPITALS, London, were chartered by Edward. King Henry, when he seized the monasteries, tried to ease his conscience by laying out part of the booty in works of charity; and Edward, following out his intention, instituted *Christ Church* (commonly called the Blue-coat School, from the dress of the scholars, which is, in shape and colour, a copy of that worn by the royal founder himself,) for the education of decayed London merchants' sons and daughters: 1400 boys are now clothed, boarded, and educated there, and about 200 girls at the preparatory school belonging to it at Hertford. The two senior pupils of the grammar-school (called Grecians) go off annually, on exhibitions, to Oxford or Cambridge. *Bridewell Hospital* was to relieve paupers, and punish vagrants; and it is now associated with Henry VIII.'s foundation of *Bethlem*, wherein 460 lunatic patients are provided for. *St. Bartholomew's* and *St. Thomas's* are for the sick, and such as meet with accidental injuries.

THE COMMON PRAYER BOOK, drawn

up by Cranmer and others 1549, was published for general use by order of parliament 1552. Cranmer, Ridley, and eleven other prelates, had before compiled more than one liturgy (from *leitourgia*, an Athenian term for the public duties of citizens,) by direction of Edward; or, in other words, had looked over the various Latin liturgies used in England before the Reformation, and expurgating them from prayers to the Virgin, and other supererogatory portions, had added thereto some of the prayers of the less used forms. The publication of the last revised manual, 1552, may be regarded as the true era of the church of England. Mary, when she came to the throne, repealed the act for publication; but Elizabeth, on her accession, ordered a review of king Edward's liturgies, and determined on the general use of what was called the second book. When James I. became king, a few forms of thanksgiving were taken from the other liturgies, and added at the end of the litany; and in this state the prayer-book continued, until Charles II., in 1661, issued a commission to 12 bishops, and as many presbyterian divines, to consider the objections to the English liturgy. The presbyterians declared it impossible to do other than abrogate it entirely, and the famous Baxter offered one compiled by himself in its room; but Charles left the matter to the bishops, and they, after selecting a few more valuable but amended portions from the old Latin liturgies, especially the prayer for all conditions of men, the general thanksgiving, the two prayers for Ember week, and the sublime one following them, beginning 'O God, whose nature and property is ever to have mercy and to forgive,' adding forms for adult baptism and for sea use, changing some of the lessons, epistles, and collects and (at Baxter's suggestion) amending the consecration-prayer in the sacramental service, by adding all the words from 'who, in the same night that he was betrayed,' and inserting the prayer before it,

—constituted the work such as we have it at the present day—an incomparable form of intercession, which breathes the pure spirit of the Church Catholic of Christ, and is the admiration even of nonconformists themselves, though their pride deters them from its use. The term *rubric* applies to those directions to the minister and congregation given at the heads of prayers; and is so called from *ruber*, red, because they were in the earliest liturgies printed in red letters, the office itself being in black letters. *Litany*, from *litancia*, a general prayer. *Ordinary*, in common law, is one who has the chief authority in a place in ecclesiastical matters: this, in emergency, may be the rector or vicar of a parish: but, in settled matters belonging to the church, the bishop of the diocese is meant. The 'Te Deum,' 'Nunc dimittis,' &c., are so called from their *initial words* in the old Latin service of the church, before the Reformation.

LORDS LIEUTENANT OF COUNTIES INSTITUTED, 1545.—During the reign of the three Lancastrian kings, commissions were, on occasion, sent to certain experienced noblemen, to put into military order all in their respective counties capable of bearing arms; and if not capable, to levy on them fines, according to the value of their estates. The parties so commissioned were termed in the writ *the king's lieutenants*; but their power ceased the moment the object for which the levy took place (whether domestic feud or foreign war) was effected. In 1545, however, such commissions were sent to the duke of Norfolk for arming the counties of Essex, &c., to the duke of Suffolk for arming Surrey, Sussex, &c., and to lord Russel for arming Dorset, &c., and were acted upon, not *pro re nata* only, but perpetually, for the keeping a due supply of militia in the several districts named. Though the right of the crown to issue commissions of lieutenant was denied by the Long Parliament, and this question formed the proximate cause of the rupture between Charles

I. and his subjects, yet, upon the Restoration, the right of the crown to issue such commissions was established by act; and the duties of lords lieutenant and their deputies are now regulated by the acts for raising the militia, a force which it is their especial duty to organize and uphold.

THE HORSE GUARDS INSTITUTED 1550.—Beyond the militia, there was no regular standing army in England till Edward raised a horse troop of 300, which was soon increased to 2000 men. These were spread about in the garrisons of the kingdom, and paid out of the king's own revenue. Even Charles II. had only such a force of 5000, and paid them himself; but James II., much to the jealousy of the nation, increased his guards to 30,000. In the bill of rights of William III., it was declared that the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless with consent of parliament, is against law; nevertheless a force, varying in its numbers, has ever since been maintained, and is now looked on without apprehension. In Great Britain there is now a standing army of about 80,000, raised by the king's authority, and acts of parliament yearly providing its pay.

THE CACTUS TREE of plants introduced to England from South America, 1550. These singular productions of nature principally occur on hot dry rocks or plains, where the common forms of vegetation could not exist; and may be considered one of the means which Providence has provided for the support of man, in regions where neither food nor water can be procured. They exist in various forms, some as large as melons, and as globular; others tongue-shaped, running out in extensive branches with joints. Broken off at any of these joints, they will take root, and produce fresh plants. The stems of all are filled with an abundant insipid wholesome fluid, and their fruit is succulent, and superior to that of the English gooseberry. In the fevers of Chili and

Peru, they are freely administered for their cooling properties, and being bruised, are esteemed a valuable cure for ulcers.

THE MULBERRY TREE first planted in England (being brought from Italy) 1548; and in proof of the

longevity of the plant, some of the trees then planted in England are still living and bearing—three centuries old. It is only indigenous in Persia.

CROWNS AND HALF-CROWNS first coined in England by king Edward, 1551.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

THE POPEDOM.—JULIUS III., cardinal del Monte, succeeded Paul III. 1550. He reopened the council of Trent, which had been suspended under his predecessor; took up arms against Ottavio Farnese, duke of Parma; and became involved in quarrels with France, Venice, and Ferdinand, king of the Romans, brother of Charles V. His death occurred 1555.

FRANCE UNDER HENRI II.—He succeeded his father, Francis I., 1547; but instead of obeying his dying injunction, 'to keep the Guises and the Montmorenci at a distance,' he drew them about his person, and suffered the court to be ruled by his mistress, Diana de Poitiers. In 1548 Mary of Scotland, betrothed to the dauphin, arrived for education in France. In 1550 he concluded the war with England, which ceded to him Boulogne for the sum of 400,000 crowns; and in 1552, notwithstanding the persecution of the reformed party by his government, he took the protestant side with Maurice, elector of Saxony, and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, against Charles V. After the abdication of the latter, the war continued between his successor Philip II. and Henri; whose troops, under the command of the constable Montmorenci, were defeated by the Spaniards at St. Quentin 1557. The French arms were likewise unsuccessful on the side of Italy; where the duke of Alba commanded the Spaniards. The war ended 1559 by the peace of Chateau Cambresis; by which Calais, which had been taken the year before by the duke of Guise, remained in the hands of the French. At the same time a double marriage was concluded; between Elizabeth, Henri's

daughter, and Philip II. of Spain, and between Margaret, Henri's sister, and the duke of Savoy. The festivals given on the occasion had a tragical end. Henri, having called on the earl of Montgomery, captain of the Scots guards, to break a lance with him in a tournament, the shaft of the earl's broken spear wounded the king in the right eye, and occasioned his death 11 days after, 1559, aged 40.

POLAND UNDER SIGISMUND II.—He succeeded his father, Sigismund I., 1548, at a moment when the violent wars of the reformation were being carried on in Germany and other parts of Europe; but he wisely avoided interfering in them. He laboured diligently to advance the happiness of his people, enforcing the laws, enriching the treasury, promoting industry, and redeeming the crown lands where the titles of the possessors appeared illegal; and out of the sums recovered in this manner, he obtained a formidable standing army, without levying any additional tax. The province of Livonia was at that time divided between the Teutonic knights and the archbishop of Riga, Sigismund's brother; and the Russians, under pretence of assisting the former, having seized great part of the dominions of the latter, Sigismund marched to his brother's aid, with 100,000 men. The knights, by no means able to resist so formidable a force, deserted their allies the Russians, and put themselves under the protection of Sigismund; whereon the czar John Basilides invaded Poland with 300,000 men. The Muscovites at first carried everything before them; but the Poles at length made a vigorous opposition, and driving them back into their

country, ravaged Russia in their turn. These mutual desolations of country, so little productive of benefit to either party, made each desirous of peace; and a truce for three years was agreed on, 1571, a year after which agreement Sigismund died, 1572. With him became extinct the house of Jagellon, after it had governed Poland nearly 200 years.

SCOTLAND DURING THE MINORITY OF MARY STUART.—This princess, the only surviving child of James V. and Mary, daughter of the Duke of Guise, had entered upon her eventful life but a few days when her father died, 1542; and though James was alleged to have left no will, Cardinal Beatoun produced a testament as his, and, on the strength of it, declared himself co-regent with the queen-mother during Mary's minority. Though the parliament, on declaring the document a forgery, bestowed that office on James Hamilton, earl of Arran, Arran himself soon affirmed it to be the genuine production of James, and defended Beatoun; so that the French, or catholic party, was soon in the ascendant in Scotland. After this coalition, the regent publicly abjured the reformed doctrines; but he had scarcely done so, when the earl of Lennox, a catholic, turning protestant, declared for the reform party, and, by a sudden march upon Edinburgh, surprised the cardinal and regent. Beatoun, however, by a skilful negotiation, gained time to raise troops, and drove Lennox into England, where Henry VIII. gave him in marriage lady Margaret Douglas. The history of Lennox is somewhat singular. He was destined to be the father of a race of kings; he saw his son (lord Darnley) mount the throne of Scotland; and his posterity at length swayed the sceptre in two kingdoms, by one of which he was cast out as a criminal, and by the other simply received as an exile. In 1546 peace was concluded with England, through the mediation of Francis I.; and in the same year Beatoun was assassinated. The car-

dinal had long been permitted by James to summon heretics before him; and the king had seen him, in his zeal for the old forms, direct his resentment against Sir John Borthwick, and the learned George Buchanan, without attempting to check him. Arran had, from the moment of accepting the regency, supported Beatoun in the same course; and at length one Wishart, a person of respectable family, who employed himself in preaching against the ancient faith at Dundee, was seized by the earl of Bothwell, carried before the cardinal, and by him condemned to be committed to the flames. The stake was prepared opposite to Beatoun's palatial residence, and Wishart suffered with patience; but observing the cardinal looking on from a window, he declared to the bystanders, that in a few days *he* should, in the very same place, lie as low as himself was now exalted aloft. This prophecy was the cause of its own speedy fulfilment; for the disciples of the martyr, enraged at his cruel death, formed a conspiracy against Beatoun, and having forced their way into his palace, one James Melvil thrust him through the body with his sword, in his bedchamber, three months after the burning of Wishart, the cardinal being then in his 53rd year. (David Beatoun was born of a good family, had been made privy-seal by James V. on his escape from Falkland, was raised to a red hat by pope Paul III., and was subsequently elevated to the archbishopric of St. Andrews by James.) The death of the cardinal was a great shock to the catholic cause. Nevertheless the regent attacked the conspirators, among whom was the celebrated John Knox; and after besieging them five months in Beatoun's own castle, he compelled them to surrender, but gave them their lives. The duke of Somerset, protector of England for Edward VI., enraged at the refusal of the Scots to give their young queen in marriage to Edward, entered Scotland, 1547 with an army,

and killed 10,000 of them in a battle at Pinky, or Musselburgh, strewing the whole way to Edinburgh, a space of five miles, with their bodies. This terrible devastation tended to render the Scots more averse than ever from an union with England ; so that when the queen had attained the age of five, she was betrothed to the dauphin Francis, and removed to France, to be educated with the French king's daughters in a convent at St. Germain-en-Laye, 1548. She did not, however, remain long in this situation. Her uncles of Lorraine, perceiving the bent of her mind to the society and occupations of a nunnery, which little accorded with their ambitious prospects, soon brought her to the court, then one of the politest but most corrupt in Europe. In this dangerous abode, Mary became the envy of her sex, surpassing the most accomplished in the elegance and fluency of language, the grace and liveliness of her movements, and the charm of her whole manner and behaviour ; and in 1558 her marriage with the youthful Francis, who had long been her playmate, was celebrated, amidst the shouts and congratulations of the assembled multitude, at Rouen. The foolish assumption by the pair of the titles of king and queen of Scotland, England, and Ireland, on the death of Mary of England, and the embroidering, engraving, or painting of the arms of England on every article of their equipage, furniture, and plate, raised that anger in the breast of Mary's successor, Elizabeth, which nothing but the blood of Mary Stuart could extinguish. Claims to the English crown were put forth, after Elizabeth was queen *de facto*, in behalf of Mary Stuart, as derived from her grandmother, the eldest daughter of Henry VII. ; an imprudent measure adopted by the ambitious Guises. Henri II. died 1559 ; and the dauphin being thereupon crowned as Francis II., Mary was at the height of her evanescent splendour. In June, 1560, her mother died ; and in December of the same year her husband, who had

been declining for some months, died also. By the latter event, Catherine de Medici again rose into power in the French court ; and Mary resolved on an immediate return to her country. Elizabeth, as she would not abandon her claim to the throne of England, refused her a passage through her dominions ; notwithstanding which she proceeded to Calais, and, quitting with tears of regret the country in which, as the sequel proved, the happiest portion of her days had been passed, landed at Leith, 1561, in the 19th year of her age, and after an absence from Scotland of thirteen years.

In order to show the change which had taken place in such a lapse of time in the sentiments of the Scottish nation, we must go back to the period of Beatoun's death. Among the party pardoned for abetting his murderers was John Knox, born of a good family at Gifford, East Lothian ; who, by the counsels of Wishart, had early embraced the reformed tenets, and preached in their support, until the threats of Beatoun compelled him to silence. After the cardinal's murder, he hid himself in the castle of St. Andrews. When that fortress surrendered to the French, 1547, he was carried with the garrison to France ; and, after two years' imprisonment, returned to London, and was licensed by Cranmer as a preacher at Berwick. Though made one of his chaplains by Edward VI., he refused a living in the English church, affirming 'episcopacy to belong to the kingdom of anti-christ,' and when Mary succeeded, he retired to Geneva. At Calvin's suggestion, he next became chaplain to the English refugees at Frankfort ; but was obliged to leave Germany again for Geneva, on account of having boldly declared the emperor 'as great an enemy to Christ as Nero.' In 1555, he again ventured to Scotland, and, as the protestants had much increased, preached in his usual style of vituperation against all prelates, and professors of the old form ; but he had no sooner returned to Geneva, 1556,

than the Black Friars of Edinburgh passed sentence of death upon him as a heretic, and burned his effigy in that city. He retorted from Geneva by various publications, among which was 'The first Blast of the Trumpet against the monstrous Regiment of Women,' chiefly aimed at the cruel government of queen Mary of England, and at the attempt of the queen regent of Scotland (Mary of Guise) to rule without a parliament. He would have returned to England, 1559, Elizabeth being now on the throne, had not that queen taken offence at his 'blast;' so that he repaired direct to Scotland, where he found the two religious parties on the eve of a conflict. The sudden appearance of Knox in a pulpit, from which he harangued vehemently against the idolatry of the old church, so inflamed the people, that they were

at once precipitated into violence; and a general attack was made on the churches of the city, in which the altars were overturned, the pictures destroyed, and the statues and images broken in pieces. The monasteries, massy fabrics as they were, were next levelled with the ground; and Knox overawing the English ministry by writing to the secretary Cecil, they sent an army into Scotland, which obliged the French troops (that had been the principal support of the co-regents in keeping a check on the parliament) to quit the kingdom. With the parliament now on his side, the reformer took upon himself, with all the authority of a pope, to prohibit the exercise of the old rites; and in 1560, only a year before the return of Mary, he established the presbyterian form as the unalterable religion of Scotland.

EMINENT PERSONS.

JEAN CALVIN, born at Noyon in Picardy, on being admitted to holy orders, obtained instantly, through family influence, a benefice in the cathedral of his native city. His father, however, wishing him to quit the church for the law, he did so; but he busied himself most in the religious differences of his day, publishing his 'Christian Institute' to clear the reformed faith from the charge of being that of the anabaptists, and was induced to return to the church when at Geneva, and to accept the chair of professor of divinity there, 1536. He assumed here-upon great ecclesiastical authority; insomuch that, having refused to administer the eucharist while certain irregularities existed, he offended both catholics and Lutherans, and was ordered to quit Geneva. Retiring to Strasburg, he married, and at length formed a church there on his own plan; and his friends at Geneva becoming strong enough to recal him, he returned to fill his old office in that city, 1541. With no one now to impede the ambitious plans he had formed, he boldly established a con-

sistory of ruling elders, lay and ecclesiastical, invested with powers to exercise canonical censures, even to excommunication. Next in rank were presbyteries and synods; the whole system of his new church being so far republican, that all the discipline was carried on by elected bodies. It was also a fundamental principle, that the church was a corporation wholly independent of, and separate from the state, as in the papal arrangement, with a view to make civil government subordinate to ecclesiastical. The reformer soon constituted Geneva 'the hierarchy of the reformed churches;' and though styled 'the reform pope,' he pursued his plan with firmness, and drew students of theology from every country to Geneva. He possessed, however, the persecuting spirit of the day; and when Servetus was attempting to escape the rage of the old church, had him arrested, tried at Geneva on a charge of blasphemy, and committed to the flames. Calvin's private character, however, was highly exemplary; and no man can either deny that he possessed extraordinary ta-

lents, or affirm that he acted in opposition to his conscience. He died, aged 55, 1564; after a life which his incessant pastoral labours are believed materially to have shortened. The leading points which distinguish the religion of Calvin from that of the other reformed churches, are the church's independence of the civil power; the real, but spiritual presence of Christ in the sacrament; and the absolute decree of God with respect to the future condition of the human race—portions of whom are (according to Calvin) predestinated to eternal happiness and misery from all eternity. Like the other reformers, Calvin maintained many of the supererogatory tenets of the old church, and even published a treatise to prove the lawfulness of putting heretics to death. His doctrine of unqualified predestination (based upon the heathen notion of a philosophical necessity), whereby man's free agency is destroyed, has produced much contention and positive evil; and his conduct to Servetus brought as great odium on the name of protestant, as fell upon that of catholic in the next reign. The influence of Calvin's opinions has been most extensive. In this our day, Holland, the Swiss and French protestants, many of the German states, the dissenters in the main from the English church, and the low-church or evangelical party in that church itself, with the Scottish kirk, are all, more or less, Calvinistic in doctrine.

MICHAEL ANGELO BUONAROTTI (1474—1564), the most distinguished master of the arts of design since Phidias, was born in Tuscany, of a respectable and once noble family; and had his attention turned to sculpture by being put to nurse at Tettignano, a village chiefly inhabited by carvers in stone. His genius was early displayed; and it raised such jealousy among his youthful rivals, that one of them, Torrigiano, struck him on some occasion of dispute with violence on the nose, insomuch that he carried the mark to his grave.

Lorenzo de Medici, struck with his abilities, at length took him into his family, and kept him there as long as himself lived. An academy was erected by Lorenzo; but the artist fled with his patron during the troubles of Florence, and retired to Bologna. About this time he made and buried an image of Cupid at Rome, which was soon after dug up, and considered by cardinal Gregory a most valuable antique; till Michael proved it his own, by fitting to it the arm it had lost. Pope Julius II. at the same period employed him to construct a magnificent tomb, still to be seen in the church of St. Peter de Vinculis, and having among its decorations Michael's beautiful statue of Moses. A quarrel with his jealous rival Bramante, induced him to leave Rome for a while; but he returned, and painted the dome of the Sistine chapel. Leo X. employed him in works of architecture and fortification; and Clement VII. (the cardinal de Medici) engaged him to erect the Laurentian Library, and other works at Florence. Afterwards his talents as an engineer were put in requisition for the defence of that city, during its siege by the partisans of the Medici family, expelled by the Florentines. He remained in the place a year, and then fled to Venice; but on the restoration of peace, he returned to Florence, and employed himself on the mausoleum of the Medici. Under Paul III., he finished his paintings in the Sistine chapel, for which he received a pension; he also executed his Last Judgment, Martyrdom of St. Peter, and Conversion of St. Paul, for the Vatican. On the death of St. Gallo, architect of St. Peter's, the task of carrying on that magnificent building was confided to Michael Angelo, then 60 years of age, 1534. During 17 years from that period, he was chiefly occupied with the vast undertaking; and with all the enthusiasm of genius, he *gratuitously* devoted his time and labour to its completion, trusting to fame for a reward. Though he did

not live to see the structure perfect, he left such admirable designs for the direction of his successors in the work, that the most glorious existing Christian fane may be justly regarded as his production. This great man died, aged 90, 1564. Even as a poet Michael Angelo shone; and his literary productions exhibited the same severe simplicity of manner which mark him as an artist. When his celibacy was once alluded to, he exclaimed 'My art is my wife, my works my children: they shall perpetuate my memory.' Simple grandeur is the characteristic of his style; and whether viewed as a painter, a sculptor, or an architect, there is a daring sublimity in his compositions, which the works of no other artist have ever equalled, and which displays the triumph of genius in all that is lofty, noble, and commanding, in the highest departments of art.

MICHAEL SERVETUS, born in Spain, practised medicine at Paris; and on observing the conflicts of the reformers, endeavoured to restore the Arian notions. Having entered into a correspondence with Calvin, that reformer laboured to reclaim him: the intercourse, however, was confidential, and brought on apparently by the wish of Servetus to be put right. But Calvin accused him of heresy to the magistrates of Vienne; and when he had escaped their hands, had him seized on his arrival at Geneva, and committed him to the stake, in his 44th year, 1553. The nearest approach made by physiologists to a discovery of the circulation of the blood, before the theory of Harvey, was that of Servetus; who affirmed that the blood passed into the lungs, and, by mixing with air, produced the vital principle. This, however, was the extent of his hypothesis.

BENVENUTO CELLINI (1500—1570), son of a carver in ivory at Florence, was born there; and a circumstance which occurred in his third year, was taken by his parents as an omen of his future celebrity. The child, on seeing a scorpion creep from

a water-butt, ignorant of its power, seized it, and carried it to his father with impunity, calling it 'his pretty crab.' Benvenuto was intended for the musical profession, but he preferred sculpture, and at 15 became apprentice to a goldsmith; in whose employ he, according to his own egotistical account, rivalled all other artists as a chaser of metal, engraver, and statuary. After being involved in many difficulties through his turbulent spirit, he visited Rome, and acquired there the art of damaskening steel. Clement VII. engaged him as an engineer, when Rome was besieged by the Constable de Bourbon, 1527; and Benvenuto boasts of having been the person who killed that commander with a cannon-ball. The coins he struck for Clement are yet to be found, and, together with his medals and chased cups, prove him to have been no common artist. After superintending the mint of Florence for a short time, he repaired to France, to aid Francis I. in the same way; but not liking that country, he again visited Rome, when he was seized, and imprisoned in the castle of St. Angelo, on the charge of having embezzled the money of the state during the invasion of the Spaniards. The cardinal de Ferrard obtaining his release, he then endeavoured to like France better; and by his sculptured and cast pieces, executed there during a stay of five years, he added greatly to his reputation. He was next taken into the service of Cosmo I. in his native city, and displayed the extent of his genius by some admirable pieces of sculpture, among which may be particularized statues of Perseus and Andromeda, and a crucifix. Working both in marble and metal, he emulated in his statuary the fame of his director and friend Michael Angelo; in the splendid solemnity of whose obsequies he bore a distinguished part. Cellini died at Florence, aged 70, 1570, and was interred with a pomp little inferior to that observed at the funeral of the

great Michael. His autobiography is now well known, and, though an entertaining, is an offensively egotistical production. Were we unacquainted with the history of his period, it would lead us to suppose the writer to have been at the head, not only of the arts of his time, but of Italian affairs in general.

SIR JOHN CHEKE, born at Cambridge, was educated at St. John's College there; and becoming regius professor of Greek, introduced a change in the pronunciation of that language, which occasioned the rebukes of Gardiner, then chancellor of the university. A fiery contest commenced, wherein the Greeks and Trojans, champions respectively of the catholic and protestant parties (for Cheke was a protestant) fought in the streets, until the catholic, or ancient mode of pronunciation was ordered by the king in council to be retained. Cheke was tutor to both Edward VI. and Elizabeth, and was made by the former provost of King's College; but the death of Edward, and his being drawn in to support the cause of lady Jane Grey against Mary, occasioned his voluntary exile to the continent. At

Brussels, however, he was seized by the agents of Philip II., and sent in custody to England; where, on recanting protestantism, he received a pension equivalent to the annual value of his forfeited estates. The circumstance of his change of principles, however, for the sake of his personal security, wore upon his mind; and he died broken-hearted, aged 43, 1557. Cheke, among other labours, endeavoured to banish from the English language all words not of Saxon origin,—a work recently attempted by the reformer, William Cobbett.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY. 1520, Suleiman II. POPES.—1584, Paul III.; 1550, Julius III. SCOTLAND.—1542, Mary Stuart. FRANCE.—1547, Henri II. SWEDEN.—1523, Gustavus Vasa. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1534, Christiern III. PORTUGAL.—1521, John III.—GERMANY.—1519, Charles V. SPAIN.—1516, Charles I. POLAND.—1506, Sigismund I.; 1548, Sigismund II. RUSSIA.—1533, Ivan IV. first czar. NAVARRE.—1516, Henry d'Albret. PERSIA.—1523, Tamasp I. DELHI.—1545, Selim Shah. HUNGARY.—1527, Ferdinand I. emperor.

REIGN CLXII.

MARY I., QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1553 TO 1558—5 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Mary, Henry's daughter, by Catherine of Aragon, was born at Greenwich 1516. In person she was of middle height, of regular features, with a somewhat melancholy expression, extremely fair, and having beautiful auburn hair. Her education had been strictly superintended: and besides an acquaintance with the learned languages, she spoke Italian, French, and Spanish, played the lute with no ordinary skill, sang with taste, and danced with peculiar elegance and grace. Her faults arose from the circumstances attendant upon her youth. She had been nurtured as a catholic; had been cruelly treated by her father, who had declared her illegitimate, and shut her out from the succession; she had seen that same parent strive with one hand to destroy the faith of his fathers, while with the other he maintained it as his own hope of salvation; she had been treated with rigour by her brother's ministry, because of her religion; and she had beheld both her father and her brother persecute to death those who would not relinquish opinions that had grown with their growth. Her sincere belief in the cor-

rectness of her views, which induced her (in common with all enthusiasts, who are apt to forget religion's laws for religion's sake), to do evil that good might come; the barbarous conduct of both sides in the Reformation; the general spirit of intolerance which pervaded Europe; the zeal which usually animates the female mind when bent upon high designs; and the constant sacrifices she thought proper to make in order to keep alive her husband's affection—were the combined causes of her severity and cruelty. Mary married the son of Charles V., who succeeded to the crown of Spain as Philip II., but had no issue.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—Both catholics and protestants in England had ever regarded Henry's divorce from Catherine of Aragon as an iniquitous proceeding; and the people in the main were ready to support her daughter's claim to the throne, now that Edward was no more. Northumberland, sensible of the opposition he must expect, had carefully concealed the destination made by the king; and, to bring the two princesses, Mary and Elizabeth, into his power, he had taken the precaution to engage the council, before Edward's death, to write to them in that prince's name, desiring their attendance, 'since his infirm health required the assistance of their advice, and the consolation of their company.' Edward expired before their arrival; but Northumberland, to make the princesses fall into the snare, kept the king's death secret. The lady Mary had already reached Hoddesdon, within half a day's journey of the court, when happily the earl of Arundel sent her private intelligence, both of her brother's death, and of the conspiracy formed against her; and she immediately retired, and arrived, by quick journies, first at Kenning Hall, Norfolk, and then at Framlingham, Suffolk. From Framlingham, she wrote to the nobility and most considerable gentry in every county of England, commanding them to assist her in the defence of her crown and person. Northumberland, therefore, found further dissimulation useless; and going to Sion House, where he had placed lady Jane Grey (who was wholly ignorant of his designs), he opened to her his intention of proclaiming her instantly, in conformity with the will of Edward. The information, however, was by no means agreeable to that sensible and amiable person, and she even refused to accept the offer, pleading the preferable title of the two princesses; but at length, overcome by the entreaties of her father, father-in-law, and husband, she gave her assent. It was then usual for the kings of England to pass the first few days after their accession in the Tower; and Northumberland immediately conveyed thither the new sovereign. All the council were obliged to attend her to that fortress, and by this means became prisoners in the hands of Northumberland, whose will they were compelled to obey. Orders were now issued to proclaim Jane throughout the kingdom; but they were complied with only in London, and even there no applause ensued—some expressing their scorn and contempt. Even Ridley, bishop of London, who preached a sermon in support of Jane's title, wrought no effect upon his audience. The people of Suffolk, meanwhile, paid their attendance on Mary: the nobility and gentry flocked to her daily, and brought to her reinforcements. Sir Edward Hastings, who had received orders from the council to make levies for the lady Jane in Buckinghamshire, carried over his troops (4000 men) and joined queen Mary; and a fleet which had been sent by Northumberland to lie off the coast of Suffolk, being forced into Yarmouth by a storm, declared for that princess. Northumberland, hitherto blinded by ambition, now saw dangers fast gathering round him. On reaching St. Edmundsbury from London, he found his army, there stationed, too weak to encounter the queen's; and upon writing to the council for reinforcements, he discovered that all his partisans therein had revolted upon his quitting the city, and that even Suffolk, who commanded in the Tower, had declared

against him. Mary now entered London, the people everywhere giving sensible expressions of their loyalty ; and the lady Elizabeth met her at the head of a thousand horse, which that princess had levied in order to support their joint title against the usurper. The queen's first command was for the custody of Northumberland ; who, upon being arrested by the earl of Arundel, fell on his knees, and abjectly begged his life. Numbers of his adherents were also seized, but released, with the exception of Sir Thomas Palmer, Sir John Gates, the duke of Suffolk, the lady Jane, and lord Guilford Dudley. Northumberland, Palmer, and Gates, were tried and beheaded soon after for treason ; and sentence was soon after pronounced against lady Jane, and Dudley her husband, but without any present intention of putting it into execution. They were, however, as well as the duke of Suffolk, detained prisoners in the Tower. Mary now released the duke of Norfolk, who had been kept in custody throughout the last reign, Courtney, son of the marquis of Exeter, who, without being charged with any crime, had been subjected to the same punishment, ever since his father's attainder, and Gardiner, Tonsal, and Bonner, who had been confined for their adherence to the old church cause.

The joy arising from the succession of the lawful heir, and from the gracious demeanour of the sovereign, hindered not the people from being agitated with anxiety concerning the state of religion ; and as the bulk of the nation inclined to protestantism, apprehensions were generally entertained of the principles and prejudices of the new queen. As she had been educated by her mother, she had imbibed the strongest attachment to the old communion, and the highest aversion for those new tenets whence, she believed, all the misfortunes of her family had originally sprung. No wonder, however, was expressed when her commands were given for reinstating Gardiner, Bonner, and other prelates in their sees ; nor when the bishopric of Durham, which had been dissolved by act of parliament, was restored by patent, and Tonsal replaced therein ; but there were some murmurs when, on pretence of discouraging controversy, orders were issued for silencing all preachers throughout England, excepting such as should obtain a particular licence ; it being easy to foresee that none but the catholics would be favoured with this privilege. Holgate, archbishop of York, Coverdale, bishop of Exeter, Ridley of London, and Hooper of Gloucester, were thrown into prison ; whither the aged Latimer of Coventry was soon after sent. Cranmer, the primate, on account of his having formerly tried to remove her father's prejudices against Mary, was not displaced ; and, though, from the part he had borne in promoting the divorce of her mother, he had reason to expect little favour, it was his own indiscreet zeal which first brought on him persecution and violence. A report being spread that, in order to keep his see, he had promised to officiate in the Latin service (now abolished), he drew up a needless manifesto, wherein he stated ' that the infernal spirit alone could endeavour to restore the Latin masses ; ' and upon the publication of so inflammatory a paper, he was imprisoned and tried for high treason, on the ground of having been one of the council which gave the crown to the lady Jane. As the proceeding, however severe, was legal, since the whole privy council shared Cranmer's guilt, Mary's favour was shown the prelate in refusing to execute the sentence against him, beyond keeping him in prison ; and the nation's attention was now turned to the proceedings of parliament.

The first bill passed by this assembly was of a very popular nature, and abolished every species of treason not contained in the statute of Edward III., and every species of felony which did not subsist before the first of Henry VIII. The parliament next declared the queen legitimate ; ratified the marriage of Henry with Catherine of Aragon, and annulled the divorce pronounced by Cranmer, whom they greatly blamed on that account ; and all

the statutes of king Edward with regard to religion, were repealed by one vote. The queen's marriage was the next subject of consideration, and the first person proposed to her for a husband was Courtney, earl of Devonshire; but that nobleman, whose person was pleasing to Mary, openly declared he preferred her sister Elizabeth, a decision which occasioned the queen to break out into declared animosity against the latter. Cardinal Pole was next named; but though his character stood high with both catholics and protestants, and with Mary herself, he was now in the decline of life, and unqualified for the bustle of a court. The queen had, in fact, a preference for the emperor's family, from which her mother was descended, and which, during her own distresses, had always afforded her protection; and Charles V., who had himself been betrothed to Mary in his infancy, readily saw his son Philip, now a widower of 27 (11 years younger than the queen), aspire to her hand. While the negotiations for the marriage were proceeding, much discontent prevailed among the protestants, who saw that the restoration of papal supremacy would follow so close a connexion with the empire; and some more turbulent than the rest, headed by Sir Thomas Wyatt, believing it easier to prevent than redress grievances, rose in arms, declaring it their intention to oppose the union with Philip. The issue, however, was the death of Wyatt and 400 of his adherents, the ill-treatment of the princess Elizabeth (who, being supposed connected with the plot, was committed to custody at Wodestoke), and the execution of lady Jane Grey and her family. The duke of Suffolk's concern in Wyatt's insurrection (he having engaged to raise the midland counties), occasioned his guilt to be imputed to his devoted daughter, who was beheaded in an hour after her husband, Feb. 12, 1554; and on the 21st the duke himself and his brother, lord Grey, suffered.

The queen's thoughts were now entirely employed about receiving Don Filippo, whose arrival she hourly expected. She dreaded that the French fleet might interrupt him; and every rumour of danger, every blast of wind, threw her into panics and convulsions. She was then struck with a new apprehension; for her glass telling her both how haggard her recent anxieties had made her, and that she was on the verge of 40, she began to fear lest she should have become less acceptable to her more youthful suitor. At last, while debating within herself whether she ought more to desire or to dread his arrival, Filippo came—the marriage was celebrated at Westminster soon after, and Windsor was selected as the royal abode.

The reserved manners of the king consort (for Philip was allowed that title, in consideration of his issue by Mary inheriting Spain, Sicily, and Milan, should Don Carlos, his son by a former marriage, die without issue), by no means gained him friends among the nobility; nevertheless, they made no opposition to a reunion with Rome, when cardinal Pole, whose attainder by Henry was reversed, returned soon after the marriage to England, invested with legatine power to receive the country again into the bosom of the Church. It is true that they received assurance from both pope and queen that the plunder they had made among ecclesiastics should never be inquired into, and that the abbey and church lands should remain with the present possessors; and the legate, in his master's name, ratified the promise, besides fixing the right of incumbents to their benefices, and bestowing validity on all marriages celebrated during the schism.

It was now Mary's policy to obtain the coronation of her husband, as heir presumptive to her crown; but to this the parliament would not consent, any more than to supplying Philip's father with money to prosecute his war with France. Philip himself became popular notwithstanding, by his protection of the princess Elizabeth from the jealousy of Mary; he even ob-

tained her release, as well as that of many noblemen and gentlemen, who had been long confined through the suspicions of the court. But the queen's disposition appears from this period to have undergone an extraordinary change; and a combination of petty and private disappointments led her to adopt a conduct, which has rendered her memory to a certain degree odious in England to this day. The smallest sparks will kindle the greatest conflagrations; and the female mind, when overstrained by high designs and a long attention to matters beyond its sphere, has shown itself liable, in all ages, to be driven at last, by injuries of the most trifling sort, to acts of the direst and most irrational nature.

Those fears which had induced the queen to dread as much as to desire the arrival of Philip, when he came to make her his wife, had by no means been allayed by his subsequent phlegmatic conduct to her; and it may be said with truth, that no single act of Mary's, after her union, was wholly exempt from having for its object the riveting her husband's affections on her. On no occasion could she observe him converse with others than herself, not even with the gentlemen of the court, without some expression of concern; and having reason to entertain hopes of bringing him an heir, and being congratulated on that prospect by the court, the catholic portion of which went so far as to decide it was to be a son, her soul sank, and her spirit seemed to look for revenge, when she saw those hopes frustrated. To further Philip's views political and other, and those of his family, to aggrandize him by every possible method, appeared now the only course to insure a return of his love: and 'no matter,' reasoned within herself this true daughter of Henry VIII., 'who suffers, or whether the nation perish, so that I obtain my end.' The parliament had refused to crown Philip, to constitute him heir presumptive, and to supply money for his parent's wars: in all these points she had failed to give him pleasure. Her hopes respecting an heir were gone—again a terrible blow—and how could she court her apathetic consort now? There was but one way open, and the ruling passion of her breast, which her early wrongs had contributed to establish, impelled her to that course. To re-establish the faith of which her father had once professed himself the defender, to re-establish it at all hazards—by the sword and by the stake—was all she could do to show her affection for her cold husband and his father, the former the long-acknowledged champion of the hierarchy. Hence the heretical crusade which followed, beginning with the destruction of Rogers and closing with that of Cranmer, and which occupied the years 1554—5—6. (*See Heretical Burnings.*) So clearly was the proceeding that of Mary alone, that cardinal Pole, the legate and representative of the pope, pleaded the advice of the emperor Charles V. himself, who, though he wished to see the old faith restored, earnestly recommended his daughter-in-law 'not to practise violence against the protestants; and desired her to consider his own example, who, after endeavouring through his whole life to extirpate heresy, had, in the end, reaped nothing but confusion and disappointment.' Nor is there reason to believe that Philip, who continually sought the release of persons confined for opinions opposed to those of Mary, wished the queen to disregard his father's excellent advice. He was, notwithstanding, compelled to see the old faith restored, on the identical grounds, and by the identical means, on and by which it had been overthrown; and as Henry VIII., for the love of woman, had brought to ruin and burned to death, so his daughter, for love of man, would burn to death to restore.

Bishop Gardiner, the chancellor, being inclined to think that, by severity against a few leading opponents of the restoration, the main body would be terrified into conformity, became at first the director of the persecutions

which now began ; but finding the odious work daily multiply upon him, he devolved the invidious office on others, and chiefly on Bonner, a man of a stern and unrelenting character. These violences, together with a rumour of introducing the Inquisition, occasioned Philip to be suspected of acting in concert with his jealous consort ; whereon he ordered his confessor to deliver publicly in his presence a sermon in favour of toleration, a doctrine somewhat extraordinary in the mouth of a Spanish friar, and soon after (1555) departed on a visit to the emperor in Flanders. Even Bonner began to express his intention not to bear alone the infamy of such proceedings ; and after 277 persons had suffered, the attention of the nation was directed from such horrid scenes to the embassy sent by Mary to Rome, consisting of lord Montacute, the bishop of Ely, and Sir Edward Carne, calling on Paul IV., now pope, to complete the work begun by his predecessor, and admit England to full communion with the Church. Paul, one of the haughtiest of pontiffs, declared that the church-property must be restored, even to the uttermost farthing, before he could give heed to such a prayer ; but as that was impossible, the father was compelled to take, in lieu, Mary's relinquishment of the tenths and first-fruits, and of such church-lands as were in the possession of the crown, and her promise to build monasteries and convents anew. Bishop Gardiner died while this reunion was in progress : the emperor, at the same juncture, gave up his Spanish dominions to his son Philip, and retired from the world.

Philip, being compelled, at his accession to the Spanish throne, to enter upon a war with the ambitious Henri II. of France, solicited Mary, by frequent messages (for he was still abroad), to raise money in his aid ; but she had now little weight with her council, and less with her people, and her vexation at being again obliged to disappoint her husband, drove her once more to persecution. Cranmer had long been detained a prisoner ; and the queen, in order the more fully to satiate her vengeance, resolved, after the condemnation of many others, to punish him for heresy rather than treason. He suffered 1556 ; and the courage of his martyrdom, though he fell short of the rigid inflexibility observed in many, made him signally the hero of the protestant party. Cardinal Pole, who had only just now taken orders, was made archbishop of Canterbury in Cranmer's room ; and being thus, by his office and his commission of legate, at the head of the English church, his hatred to all sanguinary methods of converting heretics put an end to the atrocities of the reign.

One Stafford and some other conspirators being detected in a design to surprise Scarborough, and a confession being made by them that they had been encouraged by Henri II. of France, the queen's importunity at length prevailed with the council and parliament to unite with Philip against the French nation ; and though the revenues of England then scarcely exceeded 300,000*l.*, Mary, by loans (many of which were exacted in the most arbitrary spirit of the Tudors, such as a levy of 60,000*l.* on a thousand selected people, on whose riches and affection she could rely—36,000*l.* from merchants—and laying an embargo on ships laden with goods, and ready to sail to foreign lands, demanding 20,000*l.* for permission to depart), assisted by the power of pressing ships and men, levied an army of 10,000 foot, which she sent to the Netherlands under lord Pembroke, 1557. Philip's army, above 60,000 strong with the English re-inforcement, hereupon advanced towards St. Quentin, which admiral Coligni defended ; and putting the French to the rout, slew many of their chief nobles, and took Montmorenci, the constable and commander, prisoner. All France was in consternation ; and had the Spaniards marched directly upon Paris, it must have fallen. But Philip staid to see St. Quentin fairly in his hands, in order to secure a communi-

cation with his own dominions ; and 17 days more having elapsed before Coligni could be brought to surrender, the Duc de Guise returned from Italy with his troops, and, by a series of masterly arrangements, occasioned the courage of his countrymen to revive. While Philip, from the advanced state of the season, was going into winter-quarters, Guise contemplated the seizure of Calais, and effected it, 1558, in a few days. The loss of this last-named place, which had been in the hands of the English 211 years, deeply affected Mary, already in a declining way from a dropsical complaint, aggravated by a consciousness of the hatred of her subjects, and the indifference of her husband. She had scarcely obtained from her parliament scanty supplies towards a war with the Scots (whose alliance with France, since the marriage of their young queen with the dauphin, had afforded the French a means of invading England from the north, of which they seemed about to take advantage), when death approached ; and she expired, aged 42, November 17, 1558, observing, in her last moments, that the word *Calais* would be found engraven on her heart. She was buried in her grandfather's chapel in Westminster Abbey.

EVENTS.

HERETICAL BURNINGS.—It would be a painful task to enumerate the horrid cruelties practised in England during the three years 1554–5–6. Human nature appears not, on any occasion, so detestable, or so absurd, as in religious persecutions, which sink men below infernal spirits in wickedness, and below the beasts in folly ; and a few instances may be worth preserving, in order, if possible, to warn zealous bigots for ever to avoid such odious and fruitless barbarity. The persecutors began with JOHN ROGERS, prebendary of St. Paul's, a man eminent for virtue and learning. Gardiner's plan was first to attack men of that character, whom he hoped terror would bend to submission, and whose example, either of punishment or recantation, would have influence on the multitude ; but he found a perseverance and courage in Rogers which he little expected. Rogers, besides the care of his own preservation, lay under other very powerful temptations to compliance—he had a wife whom he tenderly loved, and ten children ; yet such was his serenity after condemnation, that the gaolers had to wake him from a sound sleep, when the hour of his execution approached. He had desired to see his wife before he died, but Gardiner told him 'he was a priest, he could not possibly have a

wife,' and refused his prayer. JOHN HOOVER, bishop of Gloucester, at the age of 59, was sent to his own diocese to be executed. This was contrived to strike the greatest terror into his flock ; but it was a source of consolation to Hooper, who rejoiced in giving testimony, by his death, to that doctrine which he had preached among them. When tied to the stake, a stool was set before him, and the queen's pardon laid upon it, which it was still in his power to merit by a recantation ; but he ordered it to be removed, and cheerfully prepared himself for his dreadful punishment. He suffered it in its full severity. The wind, which was vehement, blew the flames of the reeds from his body ; the faggots were green, and would not kindle easily ; all his lower parts were consumed before his vitals were attacked ; one of his hands dropped off—with the other he continued to beat his breast. He was heard to pray and to exhort the people, till his tongue, swollen with the violence of his agony, would no longer permit him utterance. He was three-quarters of an hour in torture, which he bore with inflexible constancy. SAUNDERS was burned at Coventry. A pardon was also offered him, but he rejected it, and embraced the stake, saying, 'Welcome the cross of Christ, welcome

everlasting life.' TAYLOR, rector of Hadley, was consumed by flames in that place, in the presence of his friends and parishioners. When tied to the stake, he repeated a psalm in English; one of his guards struck him on the mouth, and bade him speak Latin; another gave him a blow on the head with a halbert, which happily put an end to his torments. ROBERT FERRAR, bishop of St. David's, was burned at Caermarthen, aged 57. NICHOLAS RIDLEY, bishop of London, aged 52, and HUGH LATIMER, bishop of Worcester, aged 85, perished together in the flames at Oxford, and supported each other's constancy by their mutual exhortations. Latimer, when tied to the stake, called to his companion, 'Be of good cheer, brother, we shall this day kindle such a torch in England, as I trust in God shall never be extinguished!' Some one had been so merciful as to tie bags of gunpowder about these prelates, in order to put a speedy period to their tortures: the explosion immediately killed Latimer, who was in extreme old age—Ridley continued alive during some time, in the midst of the flames. One HUNTER, aged 19, an apprentice, having been seduced into a dispute, had unwarily denied the real presence. Sensible of his danger, he immediately absconded; and Bonner, laying hold of his father, threatened him with the greatest severities, if he did not produce the young man to stand his trial. Hunter hereupon surrendered, and was burned. THOMAS HAWKES, when conducted to the stake, agreed with his friends, that if he found the torture tolerable, he would make them a sig-

nal in the midst of the flames; and his zeal so supported him, that he stretched out his arms, the signal agreed on, and in that position expired. This example, with many others of like constancy, encouraged multitudes, not only to suffer, but even to court and aspire to martyrdom.

ORIGIN OF THE MODERN VIOLIN. —The lyre of the ancients, the strings of which were beaten by a plectrum, was the parent of the violin. By degrees the instrument received a double sounding-board; and the strings, instead of being made of wire, were of catgut. The Italians converted it into the viol-de-gamba, or lyre with a leg; and the troubadour lyrists were thence called violists. The Amatis, however, of Cremona, 1590, remodelled the instrument; and by reducing it in various ways, produced the modern violin. Of the Amati family, Nicolao, grandson of the first improver, became very celebrated; and his instruments, known by the name of *Cremonas*, have been considered nearly the finest ever constructed. The plectrum, or striker, is now converted into the scraper or bow. It was no rare thing for the old Italian painters to introduce angels into their pictures, playing on the violin as they balanced themselves in the air; and certainly few people have so deservedly caused the instrument to be reckoned an *angelic* one as the Italians. In their hands, and in that of the Germans, it has acquired positive perfection.

THE ENGLISH RUSSIA COMPANY incorporated, 1555.

GLASS BOTTLES first made in England, 1557.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

THE POPEDOM.—On the death of Julius III., 1555, MARCELLUS II., cardinal Cervini, was elected pope; but he died in 26 days after his coronation, and was succeeded by PAUL IV., Giovanni Caraffa, aged 80. He was a great enemy to innovation in opinion, and was the chief instrument

in establishing the Inquisition in the papal territories; advocating strenuously the discipline of the Church, and the dignity of the holy see. He obliged the bishops to reside in their dioceses, and the monks in their monasteries; erected the archbishoprics of Goa, Cambray, Malines, and

Utrecht, and received back England to the Romish faith in the reign of Mary. The toleration granted by Charles V. to the protestants at Augsburg, caused Paul to threaten him with the severest effects of his vengeance, and to conclude a treaty against him with Henri II. of France. Imbued with high notions of papal prerogative, and animated with the fiercest zeal against heresy, he considered the liberty of deciding concerning religious matters, which had been assumed by an assembly composed partly of laymen, as a presumptuous and unpardonable encroachment on that jurisdiction which belonged to him alone. Before much however had been done towards the conquest of the imperial dominions by Paul and Henri, Charles resigned his crown; and his son Philip, being crowned king of Spain, concluded a truce with Henri for five years. Paul, dreading hereupon the resentment of Philip, sent a consecrated sword to Henri, beseeching him not to disregard the intreaties of a parent in distress, but to employ that weapon in his defence; in short, Henri was thereby induced to sign a new league with him, which rekindled the flames of war. This new contest was of short continuance; Paul was obliged to conclude a peace with Philip, and soon after, 1559, ended his pontificate, at enmity with all the world, not excepting his own two nephews. Immediately after his death, the people of Rome broke his statue, destroyed the insignia and monument of the family of Caraffa, and burned the Inquisitor's house.

SPAIN UNDER PHILIP II.—He was son of the emperor Charles V., and Isabella of Portugal, and succeeded on the abdication of his father, 1555. He had married (his second wife) Mary, queen of England, 1554, and by the articles of union, was to enjoy the title of king of England; but Mary was to have the administration of affairs, the sole disposal of the revenues of the kingdom, and the nomination to all employments and

offices. Having landed in England with a magnificent retinue, 1554, the queen met him at Winchester; and at Westminster they celebrated their nuptials on the 25th of July. Philip endeavoured in many instances to moderate the queen's indiscreet zeal; nevertheless, the English discovered a constant jealousy and distrust of his intentions, refused to assist the emperor, his father, in his war against France, and opposed his being crowned. On succeeding to the throne of Spain, 1555, Philip quitted England for the peninsula; where he continued the war against Henri II. of France, and, by the aid of the English, defeated his troops at St. Quentin, on St. Lawrence's day, 1557, in memory of which he built the church, monastery, and palace of the Escorial, dedicating them to that saint. The French in some measure repaired this loss, by the taking of Dunkirk and Thionville from Spain, and Calais from the English; which last disgrace, together with the coldness Philip had displayed towards queen Mary, threw the latter into a deep melancholy, that terminated in her death, 1558. After the peace of Chateau Cambresis, Philip committed the government of the Netherlands to his sister Margaret, duchess of Parma, who, by her introduction of the Inquisition, and her persecution of the protestants, brought on a revolt of the Flemings. Though Alva, by valour and severity, attempted to restore subordination, seven provinces were severed from the Spanish yoke, and establishing their independence as a republic, originated the present kingdom of Holland. In 1580, Philip made himself master of the now crippled Portugal, and soon after fitted out a prodigious fleet against queen Elizabeth, though he had before sought her in marriage; but this fleet, which was boastfully named 'The Invincible Armada,' was destroyed partly by storms, and partly by the valour of the English. Philip afterwards gave a powerful assistance to the party of the League in France,

which induced Henri IV. to declare war against him, 1595 ; but an end was put to the dispute by the peace of Vervins, 1598. In the same year Philip died at the Escorial, aged 72. This prince, who was considered by one party a Tiberius in ferocity, and by another a Solomon in discretion, was doubtless a man of great sagacity, the patron of men of merit, and the most important continental monarch of his time. He first caused to be printed at Antwerp that beautiful Polyglott Bible, which bears his name; and it was he who subdued the islands, from him called Philippines.

RUSSIA UNDER IVAN IV. (VASILOVITZ.)—This prince, designated 'the Terrible,' succeeded his father Vasili IV. at the age of five, 1533. During his minority, his uncles Andrei and Jouri endeavoured to deprive him of the crown ; but their attempts were defeated by the care and activity of his guardians. The Poles also commenced hostilities, but could make little progress. Ivan, on taking the government into his own hands at 17, 1545, displayed an inclination to rescue his people from the ignorance and barbarism in which they were immersed. He sent a splendid embassy to Charles V., then at Augsburg, to desire the renewal of the treaty of friendship concluded with his father, Maximilian ; and offered to pay him yearly two tons of gold for twenty years, to be employed in his wars against the Turks, if he would send him some statesmen competent to civilize his wild subjects ; some mechanics and artists of various kinds ; and some divines, who might instruct his clergy in the discipline of the Latin church. Charles readily complied ; and 300 German artists were dispatched forthwith to the free city of Lubeck, thence to proceed to Muscovy. But the Lubeckers, who were very powerful at that time, stopped them, and (with more caution than modern whig free-traders) represented to the emperor the dangerous consequence of affording instruction to the Russians, who would soon ruin their

trade, and distress the subjects of his imperial majesty. The workmen and others intended for Russia were easily prevailed on to return to their homes, and the czar's ambassador was arrested upon his arrival at Lubeck, and imprisoned. The first foreign enterprise of Ivan was against the Tartars of Casan, whose capital (Casan) he took by storm, 1546, and capturing the khan, Simeon, and his queen, carried them prisoners to Moscow. In memory of this success, he assumed the Roman title of Cæsar (in Russe Tsár,) which had been awarded by the Greek emperor to the son of Yaroslaf, but had never been used by the Muscovite rulers. He next reduced Astrakan, and then prepared to punish the Teutonic knights, at whose suggestion the Lubeckers had stopped the German artists, and imprisoned his ambassador. He commenced by invading Finland, then under the rule of the knights ; and in 1558, an army of 100,000 Russians entered the district of Riga, and plundering its towns, retired with an immense booty. In the next year, the greater part of Livonia was in the hands of the Muscovites. Upon this, Kettler, grand-master of the knights, declared his order at an end ; and making a free cession of Livonia to the united Poles and Swedes, himself accepted the duchy of Courland, as a fief of the crown of Poland, 1562. In 1564, a prodigious host of Tartars entered Muscovy, carrying destruction everywhere in their route ; but Ivan's general, Zenebrinov, gained a decisive victory over them, and compelled them to retire. A rupture between the Swedes and Poles enabled Ivan to seize Livonia, 1570 ; and Poland itself would have been subdued, had not a force of Crim Tartars, incited by the Swedes, invaded Russia, and after gaining a victory over the czar's generals, entered Moscow, plundered it, and set fire to all the churches. A violent storm spread the flames over the city, and the blowing up of a powder-magazine threw down what the fire might have spared ; and, ac-

cording to the most moderate computation, 120,000 citizens perished in the ruins. The circumference of Moscow was at that period (say historians), 40 miles. The Tartars at length retired, and Ivan had some years of tranquillity; but in 1582, Stephen Battori of Poland defeated him in a pitched battle, and would only grant him a peace on condition that all the territories which had been wrested by him from the Poles, should be restored. Ivan died, aged 56, 1584. During his reign, the port of Archangel was discovered by Richard Chancellor, an English navigator; and as by this means goods could be conveyed to Russia from England through the White Sea, without the assistance of either Poland or Livonia, the czar made a treaty of commerce with England, and granted many exclusive privileges to the discoverers. The cold and extensive region of Siberia, which has since become the place of banishment for Muscovite criminals of all degrees and grades, was first added to the Russian crown by Ivan.

DELHI UNDER HUMAYUN.—This second of the Great Monguls succeeded his father, Baber, 1530. The beginning of his reign was prosperous, but his brothers usurped the governments they held; and Shir Khan, an Afghan chief, taking advantage of the king's difficulties, attacked and obliged him to fly from India to the court of Shah Tamasp, king of Persia, 1542. **SHIR SHAH SUT** then mounted the throne. Before his accession he had conquered Bengal; and he soon afterwards subdued Malwa, but was killed by the bursting of a shell at the siege of Kalanjar, 1545. **SELIM SHAH**, the youngest son of Shir Shah, succeeded; and after passing a brief reign, harassed by domestic dissensions, died 1553. **MOHAMMED SHAH**, the nephew of Selim, after murdering his opposing cousin, next seized the throne. While his title was disputed by several competitors, Kaubul and Lahore were recovered by Humayun; but he kept the throne a year, when he fell

in a battle with Bahadar Khan, at Kalpi, 1554. **SEKANDER**, nephew of Shir Shah, was then elected king of Delhi by the Afghans; but **HUMAYUN** soon after entering the country, with the hope of recovering his throne, succeeded in driving him out, 1555, when he fled to Bengal, of which he became ruler. The return of Humayun gave great joy to the mass of his subjects; but he died the next year, 1556, in consequence of falling from the terrace of his palace. (*See Akber.*)

NAVARRÉ UNDER JOAN D'ALBRET.—This princess, the daughter of Henri d'Albret and Margaret de Valois, married, 1552, Antoine de Bourbon, and succeeded her father as sovereign of Navarre, 1555. Antoine, her husband, duc de Vendôme, had first appeared at the court of France after the death of Francis II., and had acted as lieutenant of the kingdom during the minority of Charles IX. Notwithstanding he had embraced protestantism on his marriage with Joan, he declared himself a catholic again, and joined the French triumvirate, consisting of the duc de Guise, the constable Montmorenci, and marshal St. André, in their designs against the calvinists. Being severely wounded while in command of the catholic army besieging Rouen, 1562, he died at Andeli that year; and after his decease, his wife and survivor Joan recalled her son Henri from the court of France, 1566, to Pau, her capital, and educated him in the reformed faith. That princess, having at length declared herself protectress of the protestant religion 1569, took her son to Rochelle, and caused him to be acknowledged leader of the French calvinists; his uncle, the prince de Condé, and admiral Coligni becoming his lieutenants. He followed the army till the peace of St. Germain, 1570, and two years after went to Paris, to espouse the princess Margaret, sister of Charles IX.; immediately after which the massacre of St. Bartholomew took place. Henri hereupon embraced the old faith, having just before, upon the death of his mother Joan, which occurred during

the preparation for his nuptials, succeeded her as sovereign of Nassau, 1572.

HUNGARY AND BOHEMIA UNDER LADISLAUS VI., &c.—Hungary fell almost to pieces after the death of Matthias I. 1490; and LADISLAUS VI., his successor, the son of Casimir IV. of Poland, passed a 26 years' reign, remarkable for insurrections and Turkish invasions, dying 1516. LOUIS II., his son, the next king, lost his life after the fatal battle of Mohats, 1526, in escaping from which he sank in a marsh, and was smothered, aged 22; a defeat which so weakened the Hungarians, that they were unable for 160 years after to free their country from the enemies of Christendom. JOHN DE ZAPOLSKI, voyvode of Transylvania, was next elected king; and when opposed by Ferdinand of Austria, he agreed to divide the kingdom with his rival, and died in the next

year, 1527. FERDINAND, now sole king of Hungary, was son of Philip I., archduke of Austria, and brother of Charles V., and had married the sister of Louis II., who fell at Mohats. On the abdication of the German throne by his brother, 1558, he became emperor at 55 years of age, by which Bohemia was again attached to Hungary. He made a truce of eight years with the Turks, reconciled the kings of Sweden and Denmark, who had long been at variance, and died at Vienna, aged 61, 1564. Hungary and Bohemia continued from this period under the emperors, though occasionally disturbed by the usurpations of popular voyvodes of Transylvania; and it was long after customary for the emperors of Germany to constitute their heir king of Hungary or Bohemia, or of both, in their own lifetime.

EMINENT PERSONS.

JANE GREY (1537—1554), daughter of Henry, marquis of Dorset, afterwards duke of Suffolk, was born at her father's seat, Bradgate-hall, Leicestershire; and to the usual accomplishments of females of rank of her day, which included an acquaintance with Greek and Latin, was able to converse in French and Italian, and to read Persian. Roger Ascham relates that, in calling at Bradgate-hall, he found her (then a girl of 14) poring over Plato, while the rest of the family were hunting in the park. But it is her conduct when in the extremity of peril which calls for our admiration. She married, 1553, lord Guilford Dudley, son of the duke of Northumberland; and king Edward having been induced by the latter to leave the crown to lady Jane (who was grand-daughter of Mary, younger sister of Henry VIII.), to the exclusion of his own two sisters, she was proclaimed queen at his decease, July 7, 1553. Her pageant reign had lasted but nine days, when Mary, the late king's eldest sister, was acknowledged queen, and

Jane exchanged a throne for a prison. She and her husband were sentenced to death; but their doom was suspended, and they might perhaps have been allowed to expiate their imprudence by a temporary confinement, but for the insurrection of Sir Thomas Wyatt, in which the duke of Suffolk, lady Jane's father, participated. Mary delayed the execution of her cousin three days, to afford time for her conversion to the catholic faith; but the queen's purpose was defeated by the constancy of lady Jane, and when the day appointed for her death had arrived, she with great readiness followed Sir John Gage, the constable, to the place of execution. When on the scaffold, she mildly observed to the bystanders, 'that her offence was not the having laid her hand upon the crown, but the not rejecting it with sufficient constancy; that she had less erred through ambition, than through reverence to her parents, whom she had been taught to respect and obey; that she willingly received death as the only satisfaction she could now make to

the injured state ; and that the story of her life, she hoped, might at least be useful, by proving that innocence excuses not great misdeeds, if they tend to the public injury.' She then caused herself to be unrobed by her women, and with a serene countenance submitted to the axe, (on Tower-hill, Feb. 12, 1554, in her 18th year), her husband having been decapitated an hour before her, on the same spot.

REGINALD POLE (1500—1558), son of lord Montacute, (the cousin of Henry VII. by Margaret, daughter of George, duke of Clarence, who was brother of Edward IV.), was born at Stoverton Castle, Worcestershire, and educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, under Latimer. He visited Italy, and graduated at Padua, Venice, and Rome ; and returning 1525, found the court in agitation respecting Henry's projected divorce from Catherine. Pole, refusing to approve what his conscience condemned (the king being on one occasion so enraged at his opposition to the divorce, that he seized a poniard to stab him), retired again to Rome ; where he expressed his sentiments of Henry's conduct in his 'De Unitate Ecclesiasticâ,' in which he compared the king to Nebuchadnezzar, and excited the emperor Charles V. to revenge the injury offered to his aunt. The consequence of this conduct was the loss of all his preferment in England, in return for which he endeavoured to form a party against Henry ; a design which terminated in the destruction of his brother, lord Montacute, and of his aged mother, then become countess of Salisbury, who fell victims to the vindictive spirit of the king, on the scaffold. Stripped of his honours, Pole found favour at Rome, was created a cardinal, and sent as legate to France, Flanders, and the council of Trent. On the death of Paul III. 1549, he was twice elected to succeed to St. Peter's chair, but rejected the proffered honour, and soon after retired to Verona, where he continued

till the death of Edward VI. On the accession of Mary, he was selected as the fittest legate to reconcile England to the holy see ; and after his bill of attainder had been repealed, he returned to his native country. He easily prevailed on the parliament to make peace with Rome ; but mild by nature, he was strongly opposed to the violent measures of Gardiner and Bonner, and was on that account accused to the pope as a heretic, and for a while had his legatine powers withdrawn. The good opinion of the queen, however, prevailed at Rome, and restored him his commission ; and on the death of Gardiner, he was confirmed by the pope in the see of Canterbury, to which he had before, on the expulsion of Cranmer, been elected. He was at the same time chosen chancellor of both universities, and made several salutary regulations for the advancement of learning. He particularly opposed, though in vain, the war with France to aid the views of Philip II. ; and seems to have acted conscientiously even when most mistaken. He was lying ill of an intermittent fever when Mary expired, and it was thought his death, which soon followed, in Nov. 1558, at the age of 58, was hastened by the anticipation of the ruin of the catholic cause. Pole may most correctly be called the last of the Plantagenets.

STEPHEN GARDINER, son of Woodville, bishop of Salisbury (brother of Elizabeth, queen of Edward IV.) was born at Bury St. Edmunds, and became master of Trinity-hall, Cambridge. Wolsey made him his secretary, and Henry VIII. sent him secretly to Italy, 1527, to procure the pope's consent to his divorce. Though he failed in his object, he rendered service while in the capitol to Wolsey, by promoting his interests as a candidate for the tiara, and also to the bishop of Norwich ; and when recalled to manage the process of the divorce, he was made secretary of state, 1528, by the former, and

archdeacon of Norwich by the bishop. His devotion to the king now got the better of his allegiance to the pope ; and he not only aided the royal designs with respect to the queen, whose divorce he signed (for which he was rewarded with the see of Winchester, 1531), but on Henry's abjuring the papal supremacy, and declaring himself head of the church, warmly supported the proceeding by his treatise '*De Verâ Obedientiâ*.' In 1543, in conjunction with Cranmer, he compiled '*The Necessary Doctrine of a Christian Man*,' a work which was ordered by Henry to be the rule of faith to all his subjects ; and he continued to enjoy the full sunshine of court favour, until the threatened impeachment of queen Catherine Parr. It is shown elsewhere how skilfully the queen extricated herself from her perilous situation ; and Gardiner was never again able to recover his royal master's favour. The prelate's opposition to the reformed church in the next reign, induced the young monarch to deprive him of his bishopric, and commit him to the Tower, where he remained five years ; but on Mary's accession his star was again in the ascendant, and he was not only restored to his see, but made chancellor, and first minister of state. The persecution he had himself undergone on account of tenets, had not taught him tenderness towards others ; and though he has been overcharged with the cruelties practised upon the protestants, he certainly authorized them at first, but declined directing them so soon as he found severe measures unavailing. In his private character he appears to much greater advantage. Learned himself, he patronized learning liberally in others ; and his grateful conduct to Wolsey, to whom he owed his original elevation, redounds to his honour. To him he was as much devoted in his decline as in his zenith. In his last days he looked back upon and repented of his errors ; and '*Erravi cum Petro, sed non*

flevi cum Petro!' was his frequent and contrite exclamation. He died, aged 72, 1555.

MILES COVERDALE, born in Yorkshire, was educated among the Augustines at Cambridge, and in 1514 took holy orders. Many years after, when the Lutheran tenets began to appear at Cambridge, he was one of those who met to discuss their nature ; and after a visit to the continent, 1532, he displayed his conversion by publishing a translation of the Bible, which he dedicated to Henry VIII. It was printed at Zurich, and was the first English copy of the scriptures. He also conducted through the press, 1539, '*Cranmer's Bible*,' and was raised to the see of Exeter, 1551 ; on which occasion, being so poor as not to be able to pay the first-fruits, the king, at Cranmer's solicitation, excused them. When Mary succeeded, he was deprived and imprisoned ; but was released at the request of the king of Denmark, and invited to his court. From Copenhagen he passed to Geneva, and assisted other English exiles in producing 'the Geneva translation' of the Bible. When he returned to England, after Elizabeth's accession, he was found so wedded to Geneva notions, as respected dress and ceremonies, that the queen would not allow him to resume his see ; and bishop Grindal gave him the living of St. Magnus, London. He died, aged 81, 1568.

EDMUND BONNER, born at Hanley, Worcester, was son of a sawyer, and, by the patronage of the Lechmere family, was placed at Broadgatehall, Oxford. Having made great progress in canon law, and taken orders, Wolsey made him his chaplain ; and he was at Cawood with the cardinal when the king's warrant arrived for his arrest. Through Cromwell he was introduced to Henry VIII., and became a strenuous advocate for throwing off the papal yoke ; and when Clement had excommunicated Henry, he was sent in 1533 to Marseilles, where the pope

then was, to appeal to a general council against the decree. Here he ventured to deliver his master's threatenings with so little ceremony, that Clement spoke loudly of throwing him into a cauldron of molten lead; whereon, fearing some violence, Bonner made his escape, and on his return was made bishop of Hereford by Henry 1538, and translated 1540 to London. On the accession of Edward, he declared himself, to the astonishment of the reformers, an enemy to their cause; and entering into a conflict with Cranmer and Hooper, he, when made to preach a sermon at Paul's cross on four disputed points, omitted one, and was deprived of his see, and imprisoned. When Mary succeeded, he was restored; and his hatred of the new tenets was displayed by his burning above 100 persons in his diocese for heresy. Cardinal Pole, on one occasion, saved 22 who had been sent up by his orders from Colchester for execution. When Elizabeth became queen, she displayed her horror of this severity by refusing Bonner her hand, when he came with other prelates to do homage to her at Highgate, 1558; and in 1559 he was, for refusing to take the oath of supremacy, deprived a second time, and sent to the Marshalsea. On his way to that prison, a man called out to him 'The Lord confound, or else turn thy heart;' but Bonner had a spirit which could by no means sink in adversity. 'The Lord send thee to keep thy breath to cool thy porridge!' was his reply; and when a student, with still less feeling, exclaimed to him from the crowd, 'Good morrow, bishop *Quondam*!' he retorted 'Farewel, knave *Semper*.' He died in prison, after ten years' incarceration, aged 71, 1569.

THOMAS CRANMER (1489—1556), son of a gentleman of Norman descent, was born at his father's scat, Aslacton, Notts, and educated at Jesus College, Cambridge; where he lost his fellowship, on account of having married an innkeeper's daughter.

On his wife's death he was restored; and having retired to a friend's house at Waltham Abbey, on account of the plague breaking out at Cambridge, he there met with Dr. Edward Fox, and Gardiner, afterwards bishop of Winchester, at the moment that the king's meditated divorce was the general topic. During a conversation on the subject, Cranmer observed, how foolish it was to apply to the pope, when, as a point of canon law, the universities of Europe could best decide the question; whereon Fox reported his observation to Henry, who, rapturously exclaiming, with a coarse oath,—'The fellow has got the right sow by the ear!' sent for Cranmer. Instantly made a royal chaplain, Cranmer was ordered to write his opinion of the divorce; and having satisfied Henry by his mode of executing the task, he was rewarded with a living, and sent in 1530 to carry out his plan, by collecting the opinions of the divines and canonists of France, Italy, and Germany. At Rome he presented his treatise to the pope, and offered publicly to defend its doctrine; and Clement, who was at the instant obliged to court Henry, appointed Cranmer his penitentiary for England. In returning home through Germany, he was overcome by the arguments of the protestant divines among whom he was compelled to mingle; and secretly married the niece of Dr. Osiander, an ardent reforming preacher of Nuremberg. After acting in the Netherlands as a secular diplomatist, and concluding a commercial treaty with that state, he was ordered home by Henry, to succeed Warham as archbishop of Canterbury, 1532. Great as was the prize, Cranmer saw that he must take a false oath regarding celibacy and papal submission, if he accepted it, and for some months delayed; but at length he complied, and was consecrated by receiving the papal pall and bulls. A course of evasion and virtual falsehood so disgraceful, eventually led to still further duplicity and degradation of

character. He next pronounced a divorce between Henry and Catherine, married the king to Anne Boleyn; and when the pope threatened his excommunication, an act of parliament was passed for abolishing papal supremacy. In 1536, when the master whom he had resolved to serve, had set his heart upon another woman, and declared he would bastardize his child by Anne Boleyn, Cranmer had the meanness to pronounce a sentence of divorce, on the plea that the queen had confessed to him her having been contracted to lord Percy before her marriage with the king. The trial and conviction of Lambert, and his execution by fire by the archbishop's authority took place 1538; but something like a visitation for such acts of injustice and cruelty befel him 1539, when the Six Articles, condemning as they did *to death* all who supported the right of marriage of priests, and especially all priests who married, compelled him to own his union, and send back his wife to Germany. On this occasion Henry, who never spared his warmest supporters when he caught them erring, added insult to the prelate's loss, by sending the duke of Norfolk and the earl of Essex to him at Lambeth, to sympathise with and console him under his deprivation. Cranmer henceforth acted a more upright part for the Reformation; compiled with Gardiner 'The Necessary Doctrine'; and when Cromwell was condemned, and he could not by all his intercession save him, nobly retired from court, and avoided all further interference with state affairs. He was however called before the privy council 'for having opposed the Six Articles, and infected the whole realm with novel doctrines;' and had not Henry interposed to save him, he would most probably soon have closed his life upon the scaffold. As one of the executors of the king's will, he was a co-regent during the minority of Edward VI.; and he then proceeded to model the church of England, and aided in drawing up

the liturgy, 1549. Great resistance was offered to its adoption (as the common-prayer-book) in the west of England, where an insurrection was not put down without bloodshed, and the execution of such of the leaders as could be caught; and this had no sooner been effected than Cranmer, with Ridley and others, sat in commission against heresies, and began again that atrocious practice, which was eventually visited upon themselves, of burning delinquents. No excuse can be offered for the primate, who was, it is said, naturally tenderhearted, for his thus committing Joan Boucher (for asserting Christ's body was not the flesh of the Virgin) and George Van Paris (for Arian notions) to the flames; and the fate of the former is rendered especially his act, by the fact that it was only by his pressing importunity the young king was induced to sign her death-warrant. In the same year the primate countersigned the warrant for lord Seymour's execution, contrary to the canon law, which prohibited divines from meddling in matters of blood; and he then proceeded to depose Bonner, and to enforce the substitution of communion-tables for altars in the churches. Bishop Gardiner had already been two years in prison, and was now treated with such marked severity by Cranmer and Ridley, the latter of whom had been placed in Bonner's see, that we may fairly attribute their own cruel deaths, in the next reign, to their present conduct. Articles were laid before Gardiner, touching the king's supremacy, and other matters, which it was well supposed he would have objected to, but which he signed; and the primate, thus disappointed, next sent him the articles for the marriage of the clergy (a point in which he had himself set an example of contumacy, by breaking the law of celibacy, when it was a law), and for the liturgy—upon his refusal to assent to which, he was ordered back to the Tower, and deprived of his bishopric. When it is recollected that Cranmer

at the moment he was thus harshly treating a brother prelate for not renouncing opinions which had grown with his growth, would not himself give up his belief in transubstantiation—nay, had even declared Frith a heretic, and committed Lambert to the flames, for doubting the corporal presence—we cannot but admit that his conduct to Gardiner was most unchristian, tyrannical, and unjust. The primate had just obtained a sanction of the parliament to the common-prayer, and had drawn up 42 articles as the rule of faith, for the royal signature, when Edward died, 1553, and his own troubles commenced. Instantly upon the king's decease being known, a letter, signed by many of the chief persons in the state, including Cranmer, was sent to Mary, the rightful heir, declaring the lady Jane Grey to be the sovereign; and on July 9th, 1553, all who had so signed, took the oath of allegiance to Jane. On the 20th, however, singular to say, Northumberland, the head of lady Jane's party, received a written command from Mary, signed by Cranmer, to disarm, and own Mary his queen; Gardiner and the other catholic priests were released and restored; and a commission was granted to them to imprison all protestant bishops and primates, on the charges of treason, heresy, and matrimony. Cranmer still held the primacy, but the power of appointing preachers was given to Gardiner as chancellor; and it would have been well for the former had he then taken the advice of his friends, and fled to the continent. He, however, relied on the service he had formerly done Mary in supporting her claim to legitimacy; forgetting that Mary had ever expressed herself too openly on the subject of her mother's divorce, to make it likely she could forget his conduct in that affair. On August 9th, he was called before the council, and ordered to confine himself to his palace; on the 27th he was again brought before the same tribunal; and in September, together with La-

timer and Ridley, was committed to the Tower. He was charged with treason, as the abettor of the lady Jane, but only ordered to be kept in prison. He had recently given up his belief in the corporal presence; and the star-chamber, when Mary, after he had been two years confined, resolved on putting him to death, condemned him on the latter charge—the very offence for which he had himself condemned Lambert to the stake. When, at the expiration of 10 days from the date of a papal summons to Rome, he did not (because he could not) appear, Paul IV. commanded his execution for contumacy; and upon the arrival of this edict, the primate's mind, overcome by the close prospect of a painful death, gave way, and hoping to live, he signed a recantation of his faith. The stake was nevertheless prepared, and he was directed to carry his recantation thither, and read it to the assembled spectators. It was evident, therefore, that the course he had adopted would not avail him; and when conveyed to the place of execution, he surprised his tormentors by affirming 'he had only now to recant his recantation, to be sorry for his weakness, and to punish the hand which had signed the offensive declaration, by burning it before his body.' Fire being put to the pile, he stood with his right hand extended over the flame, exclaiming, 'This unworthy hand.—Lord Jesus receive my spirit!' until the smoke stifled him. This took place opposite Balliol College, Oxford, March 21, 1556, the sufferer being then in his 68th year. All the ill points of Cranmer's character have been touched on; but he had many antagonist virtues. He was faithful to his private friends, courteous and attentive to foreign and other learned persons, and, in his heart, a lover of peace. As to persecution, both papists and protestants in his day resorted to it as the legal remedy for heretical diseases: it is rather to be regretted, on that point, that the archbishop was so ready, and

certainly one of the earliest, to use it. The burnings of the reign of Mary were but that queen's revengeful retaliations for the like burnings by Cranmer and the protestant party, in the previous reign of Edward; and Cranmer's own crime and mode of death were the identical crime and punishment which he had inflicted upon others. Of this retribution he could not complain. Had Cranmer lived in less eventful times, and in a less bloodthirsty day, his virtues would have found time and space for growth; and he would doubtless have proved the firm and intact personage, we could wish the founder of the Apostolical English church had been.

DIANA DE POITIERS, the mistress of Henry II. of France, who at forty captivated the young monarch of eighteen, completely ruled the French cabinet until the king's death, 1559; and with an ability that tended much to the peace of her country. To great powers of mind she added unusual personal charms. She was the daughter of count St. Vallier, who had been condemned to lose his head for favouring the escape of the constable Bourbon; but who was pardoned, on his daughter's throwing herself at the feet of Francis I., to solicit his life. She died in retirement, aged 66, 1566.

CONTEMPORARIES.—*Cardinal Cajetan*, properly Tomaso de Vio, born at Gaieta (Cajeta), had been some time general of the Dominicans, when Leo X. gave him a red hat, and employed him to oppose Luther. In three conferences held with that reformer at Augsburg, Cajetan, by his hauteur, widened instead of healing the breach in the Church. He was afterwards legate in Hungary for Adrian VII., and then devoted his days to scripture commentaries and tracts against the protestants; dying bishop of Gaieta, aged 66, 1534. *Pierre Ramus*, born in Picardie, rose from the rank of a servant in the college of Navarre at Paris, to be royal professor of philosophy and eloquence

therein. He is now only remembered as the inventor of the modern method of pronouncing Latin, especially as respects the *q*; such words as *quisquis*, &c., being before sounded *kikis*, &c.; an innovation which produced riots in Paris, similar to those at Cambridge, when Cheke attempted his change in the Greek. Those who supported the new method were styled Ramists. Ramus having abjured the old faith for protestantism, fell in the massacre of the Barthélemi, 1572. *Peter Martyr*, born at Florence, became an Augustine monk; but on embracing protestanism, was invited by Cranmer to England, and made professor of divinity at Oxford, 1549. During Mary's reign, he lived in retirement at Zurich; and though solicited by Jewel to return, after her decease, he continued there till his death, aged 63, 1562. Out of his numerous works against the catholics, his Defence of the Orthodox Doctrine of the Eucharist has been most regarded. *John Fox*, born at Boston, Lincolnshire, was educated at Brazenose and Magdalen, Oxford, and lost his fellowship at the latter college for holding the reformed opinions. In the reign of Edward VI. he was reinstated, became an exile in that of Mary, in Elizabeth's received a stall in Salisbury Cathedral, and died, aged 70, 1587. Fox is now known by his History of the Acts and Monuments of the Church, technically known as 'the Book of Martyrs'; a work which, though a highly exaggerated statement of the proceedings of Mary's reign, while it omits the severities practised by Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Elizabeth, will serve to convince future generations, not only of the cruelty and wickedness, but of the utter *futility* of religious persecution.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1520, Suleiman II. POPES.—1550, Julius III.; 1555, Marcellus II. and Paul IV. SCOTLAND.—1542, Mary Stuart. FRANCE.—1547, Henri II. SWEDEN.—1523, Gustavus I. (Vasa). DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1534, Chris-

tiern III. PORTUGAL.—1521, John III.; 1557, Sebastian. GERMANY.—1519, Charles V.; 1556, Ferdinand I. SPAIN.—1516, Charles I.: 1555, Philip II. POLAND.—1548, Sigismund II. RUSSIA.—1538, Ivan IV., first czar. NAVARRE.—1516, Henry d'Albret; 1555, Joan d'Albret, and An-

toine de Bourbon. PERSIA.—1523, Tamasp I. DELHI.—1545, Selim Shah; 1553, Firoz Shah, then Mohammed; 1554, Sekander II.; 1555, Humayun II. restored; 1556, Abker. HUNGARY.—1527, Ferdinand I. emperor.

REIGN CLXIII.

ELIZABETH, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1558 TO 1603—45 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Elizabeth was Henry VIII.'s daughter by Anne Boleyn, and was born at Greenwich, 1533. She was educated a protestant, under Ascham, and in those classical studies into which it was then customary to initiate females of distinction. She had a commanding person, but less of feminine beauty than her sister Mary possessed. Estimating the character of Elizabeth from the events of her reign, she will justly rank high among sovereigns. Under her auspices, the protestant religion was firmly established, factions restrained, government strengthened, the vast power of Spain nobly opposed, oppressed neighbours supported, and the national fame aggrandized. She sought to gain the affections of the people by dignified concession and a cautious demeanour. She was frugal almost to avarice: but being as careful of the people's money as of her own, she materially contributed to the public welfare. Her greatest errors were her cruelty to her cousin, Mary of Scots, general violence and haughtiness of temper, impatience of contradiction, and an insatiable fondness for flattery. She had, in a remarkable degree, that weakness of the age, which induced a resort to astrological quacks in affairs of importance; and the noted Dr. Dee was supplied abundantly by her with money, to pursue his search after the philosopher's stone. In extenuation of her severity to catholics, it must be allowed, that most of those who suffered had sought the overthrow of the state: as respects her cruelty to her relative and rival, it is certain that the deed was considered necessary both by her ministers, and a vast majority of the people. Elizabeth, though substantially a learned woman, was no very munificent patroness, and made but poor returns to authors for the excess of incense they bestowed upon her. She was rather great as a politician, than either estimable as a moralist, or amiable as a woman; but her reign, on the whole, was as honourable as seems possible to the intellect and capacity of the person presiding over it. As she never married, she has been designated, with truth, the virgin queen of England.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—In the reign of Mary, Elizabeth had been placed under circumstances of difficulty, through her known attachment to protestantism; and but for the politic interference of her brother-in-law, Philip of Spain, would have been in great personal danger. On the death of her sister, 1558, she was received in the metropolis with the loudest acclamations; and wisely forgetting all the affronts which had been put upon her, displayed a gracious demeanour which won all hearts. Philip soon made her an offer of marriage; but although grateful to him for his protection from her sister's rage, and in one instance for his preservation of her life, he was too unpopular with the nation to allow her to think of him as a husband. By her first

parliament, she settled the religion of the country ; and England took the high station among protestant nations which it has ever since held. The queen's attention, in foreign matters, was first directed to Scotland. Mary, its young queen, was not only next heir to the English crown after herself, but was regarded by the catholics, who deemed Elizabeth illegitimate, as the true sovereign of England. By Mary's marriage with the dauphin, and her relationship to the Guises, Scotland was drawn into a closer union than ever with France. Thus great political causes of enmity abounded, in addition to that female rivalry which was the most conspicuous foible of Elizabeth. The first step she took in Scottish affairs, was to send a fleet and army to aid Knox in the reformation ; and this interference drove the French from Scotland, 1560. On Mary's arrival in her dominions from France, after the death of her husband, she being then but 19 years of age, attempts were made to obtain Elizabeth's recognition of her title, as presumptive heiress to the crown of England ; but though the proposals were highly disagreeable to the latter, the two queens lived for some time in apparent amity.

Meanwhile Elizabeth had many suitors among the princes of Europe ; but she constantly resisted marriage, and turned her mind entirely to affairs of state. She aided the Huguenots in France with men and money, assailed the catholics at home, and opposed the queen of Scots in her design to obtain a second husband. She began soon after to adopt court-favourites, selecting them for their personal accomplishments, rather than for their sterling merit, as in the well-known instance of Dudley, earl of Leicester. The disturbances she had long fomented in Scotland having led to the captivity of Mary by her own subjects, that princess at length escaped, after the success of her enemies at Langside, 1568, to England, to implore the protection of her rival ; who thereupon, with great injustice, imprisoned her. In the midst of these events, the puritans began to give great uneasiness to Elizabeth, whose maintenance of the ceremonials and dignity of the hierarchy they regarded as only one remove from popery ; but the queen, with great tact, made them certain concessions, and, in spite of their murmurs, the 39 articles were promulgated as the rule of the new church, 1562. The politic aid given by Elizabeth to the protestants of the Netherlands, induced Philip II. to promote a conspiracy organized against her by the bishop of Ross, the Scottish resident in England ; and the duke of Norfolk, who had privately arranged to marry Mary (now the soul of the plot), proving, when the affair was discovered, a party concerned, was tried and executed 1572. Elizabeth at present passed over Mary's conduct, but contrived to ruin her party in Scotland, by Morton's succession to the regency ; and in the same year (1572) occurred the massacre of St. Bartholomew, on hearing of which the queen put on mourning, and received the French ambassador, sent to apologize for the execrable deed, in silent solemnity. Nevertheless, the duc d'Alençon, the French king's brother, came to England soon after, and solicited her hand ; but she sent back the enraged prince with a refusal. In 1575 she received the honourable offer of the sovereignty of the revolted Dutch provinces ; but from prudential reasons she declined to accept them, and it was not until 1578 that she signed a treaty of alliance with them. In 1584, her subjects of all ranks entered into an association to defend her from all attacks, in consequence of a reported attempt on the part of Mary's friends to take her life. Elizabeth defied all such rumours ostensibly, though she secretly took all proper precaution, and acknowledged the affectionate attention of her people.

As Philip of Spain had long threatened an invasion of England, in consequence of Elizabeth's refusal of him for a husband, the queen sent Drake with a large fleet against the Spanish West India islands, and at the same time supported the Dutch provinces in their revolt against Spain ; but she had no

sooner sacrificed the unhappy queen of Scotland, on the ground of having organized Babington's conspiracy, 1587, than an immense Spanish fleet appeared on the coast. The queen's conduct on this occasion was most heroic; and it need here only be stated the 'invincible armada,' as it was styled, was quickly subdued by the prompt valour of the English ships, and the happy coincidence of most boisterous weather, 1588. The queen, after this, took great interest in French affairs; and by means of her favourite, the earl of Essex, supported Henri IV. in his claim to the throne.

Elizabeth was in the habit of making visits to the houses of her nobility; on which occasions Raleigh, during the period of her favour to him, was her attendant captain of the guard. These visits were called *progresses*; and though they tended to impoverish many a peer, she frequently repaid the liberality of her entertainers with offices of trust and emolument. When Cecil received her at Theobalds, 1591, it was in expectation of being promoted to the secretaryship; when the earl of Hertford received her at Elvetham, the magnificence he displayed was not thought by him too high a price to regain her favour, which had been long withdrawn. When Sir Julius Cæsar had entertained her at his house at Mitcham one whole day and night, at a cost of 700*l.*, he received his appointment of master of St. Katherine's hospital, and was made judge of the admiralty. Secretary Cecil received twelve visits from the queen, each of which royal favours cost him nearly 8000*l.*; nor did she hesitate to remain at his house a month, receiving ambassadors, and being entertained as bountifully as if she had been in one of her own palaces.

For some years English auxiliaries served in France, and naval expeditions were undertaken, in which none more distinguished themselves than the earl of Essex, who, on the death of Leicester, succeeded to his place in the queen's favour. In 1601 Elizabeth held a conference with the celebrated Sully, Henri's minister, to concert a new balance of European power, in order to control the preponderance of Austria; and having suppressed a rebellion in Ireland, fomented by king Philip, she turned her thoughts to the domestic evil of monopolies, almost the only cause of complaint, as respects pecuniary matters, in her reign. Many of these injurious grants were revoked; and the queen was meditating similar reforms, when the treasonable conduct of Essex drew her to affairs of the most personal kind. The earl was brought to the scaffold, 1601; and when the dying countess of Nottingham assured the queen that Essex had transmitted to her a ring, which implied his request of pardon, (such ring having been given by the queen, in case of any emergency, but never returned to her,) Elizabeth became furious with rage, and then sank into a deep melancholy. At length nature was overpowered, a lethargy ensued, and she was urged, on her last bed, to declare her successor. 'Who but our kinsman, the king of Scots?' she said pettishly, in a low tone of voice; and expired, in the seventieth year of her age, March 24, 1602. She was interred with great splendour at Westminster, in her grandfather's chapel, and the nation's sorrow for her loss was in every way expressed; a fact which Taylor, called the water-poet, who was royal bargeman to Charles I. and his queen Henrietta, thus ludicrously records in an ode upon her death:

'The queene was brought by water to Whitehall:
At every stroke the oars did tears let fall!
More clung about the barge: fish under water
Wept out their eyne of pearl, and swam blind after.
I think the bargemen might, with easier thighs,
Have rowed her thither in her people's eyes;
For, howsoe'en, thus much my thoughts have scanned,—
She had come by water, had she come by land.'

EVENTS.

SIXTEENTH CENTURY OF THE CHURCH (1501—1600).—The authority of the pope in temporal matters had during the fifteenth century been especially grievous to the small principalities of Germany, wherein the church property bore no small proportion to the whole value of each state ; and various means had from time to time been devised to get rid of the tyrannous dictations and usurpations of the apostolic see. When the religious wars of the Hussites arose, the sect failed not to receive secret support from one or more of the princes against the pope ; and it was only because the then emperors of Germany were firm on the papal side, that the changes effected in this century had not taken place in the previous one. The whole christian world, now that every heresy was put down, was in profound peace, when Martin Luther (*See his Memoir*) began inveighing openly, 1517, at Wittemberg, in Saxony, against the sale of indulgences ; whereon the Franciscan friars, who had the management of the sale in Switzerland, were opposed by Zuñglius and the Swiss, 1520. In Germany, Luther continued his course, without being intimidated by the ecclesiastical censures thundered against him, protected as he was by the minor princes, who established the reformed faith at once in their respective dominions. Melancthon, Carlostadius, and other men of eminence, aided the work of Luther ; and in all probability the hierarchy would have soon come to an end, had not the emperor Charles V. taken up its cause. In a diet at Worms, the papal legates insisted that Luther ought to be condemned without trial or hearing, as a notorious, avowed, and incorrigible heretic ; but the diet simply admonished the reformer, and permitted him to depart with a safe conduct. Meanwhile the Reformation advanced rapidly ; almost every city in Saxony embracing the Lutheran opinions, and the clergy therein giving the cup as well

as the bread to the laity. In a short time, however, the new opinions were condemned by the university of Paris ; and a refutation of them was attempted by Henry VIII. of England. But Luther was not to be thus intimidated ; and he published his animadversions on both with as much acrimony as if he had been refuting the meanest adversary. Meanwhile those divisions began to prevail, which have since so much agitated the reformed churches. The first dispute was between Luther and Zuñglius, concerning the manner in which the body and blood are present. Luther, though he wished to reject transubstantiation, was nevertheless of opinion that the body and blood are really present, though in a way he did not pretend to explain. This Zuñglius declared to be a distinction without a difference ; and each maintained his opinion with pertinacity. At this juncture Frederick of Saxony, who, though he had encouraged Luther, never took pains to introduce the reformed faith into his dominions, was succeeded by his brother John ; and that prince without delay ordered Luther and Melancthon to draw up a body of laws for ecclesiastical government and public worship, and proclaimed it by heralds throughout his dominions. His example was followed by the other states of Germany that had renounced the papal supremacy ; and a like form of worship, discipline, and government, was introduced into them all. In a diet at Spire, 1526, though the emperor's ambassadors did all in their power to urge the princes to return to the fold, it was finally agreed that they should, in their respective dominions, be at liberty to manage religious matters in their own way ; yet so as to be able to give to God and the emperor a proper account of their administration. In 1529, however, in a new diet at Spire, this power was revoked by a majority of votes ; and every change declared unlawful that should

be introduced into the doctrine, discipline, or worship of the established religion, before the determination of the approaching council should be known. A decree so unexpected raised the ire of the elector of Saxony, the landgrave of Hesse, and other members of the diet; the promise of speedily assembling a general council they looked upon as an artifice of the Church; and they affirmed that a free council would be the last thing to which the pope would consent. When, therefore, they found all their remonstrances make no impression upon Ferdinand, the emperor's brother, who presided in the diet (Charles himself being then absent at Barcelona), they entered a solemn *protest* against this decree, and appealed to the emperor and a future council. Hence arose the appellation of *protestants*. The elector of Saxony now ordered Luther and others to draw up the articles of the new creed; and this document was read at the diet at Augsburg 1530, Charles V. being present, and was hence denominated 'the confession of Augsburg.' Matters after this diet began to draw to a crisis. Various conferences were held between persons eminent for piety and learning on both sides; and nothing was omitted that might calm the animosities, and heal the divisions, which reigned between the contending parties. But the differences being too great to admit of a reconciliation, the papal side had recourse to the powerful arguments of imperial edicts, and the secular arm. At length a severe decree having emanated from the emperor at Augsburg, denouncing the separation from the Church heretical, the elector of Saxony and the other confederated princes assembled at Smalcald 1531, declaring it their intention to support the secession to the utmost of their ability. This was a virtual resort to arms, but a peace at Nuremburg, 1532, closed the dispute for the present between the princes and the emperor; and it was on that occasion agreed that the

Lutherans should be allowed the free and undisturbed exercise of their opinions, until a rule of faith were fixed, either in the free general council that was to be assembled in the space of six months, or in the diet of the empire. As Charles had now no other hope of terminating the controversy but by the meeting of a general council, he earnestly solicited Clement VII. to grant one; but the protestants constantly demurred at such an assembly occurring in Italy, and made a protest at Smalcald to that effect. At length Paul III., the successor of Clement, resolved on calling a council at Trent, whether the protestants would meet his legates there or not; for which he had the consent of the diet at Spire, and of the emperor. No historian of the period has ventured to deny that Paul offered more than was expected towards a reconciliation with the opponents of the hierarchy. He agreed that a reformation of the Church should be attempted; complained of the pride of some prelates, and of the ignorance of others; conceived it right that no benefice should be held by a man out of his native or accustomed country; declared that no cardinal should in future hold a bishopric; that the education of those intended for holy orders should be better attended to; that none but strictly pious and well-prepared persons should receive ordination; condemned translations from one benefice to another, pluralities, non-residence, and grants of reservation. A vast number more of equally important points were to be conceded; and lastly it was promised 'that the effects and personal estates of ecclesiastics should be sold, and the proceeds given to the poor.' Concession, however, could not, in that passionate exigency, satisfy the opposing party; and it is clear that, had the protesting princes accepted it, Luther must have been ruined. But Luther and Sturmius acted on the occasion, not only unjustly, but indecently; they went the length of

ridiculing and burlesquing the proffered reform of Paul, when promulgated previously to the opening of the council, and vigorously assailed the pope with the title of anti-christ. Meanwhile the elector of Saxony, and Philip, landgrave of Hesse, the chief supporters of the protestant cause, took proper measures to prevent being surprised by a superior force; but, just before the grand day of assembly, Luther died. When the council nevertheless met at Trent, the reforming princes sat in diet at Ratisbon; but as the latter protested against each decree of the council as it was promulgated, Charles, losing all patience, took up arms *de facto* to terminate the dispute. The elector of Saxony and landgrave of Hesse led their forces into Bavaria against him, and cannonaded his camp at Ingoldstadt. This, it was supposed, would bring on an engagement, that would probably have been advantageous to the reformers; but divisions arose among the confederate princes, and the elector, while marching homewards, was taken prisoner by the emperor. The landgrave of Hesse hereupon resigned himself to Charles. Though the affairs of the protestants were now in a desperate condition, Charles, when a plague had compelled the council of Trent to disperse, displayed a wish to unite both parties, by drawing up a rule of faith, combining the sentiments of either communion. This document, proposed as it was between the breaking up and re-assembling of the council, obtained the title of the *Interim*; and when Maurice, who had been appointed elector of Saxony in the room of his captive uncle, read it, he referred it to the reformer Melancthon, who agreed that it might be received as a temporary authoritative rule. The mild character of Melancthon made it appear to the more violent party that he was insincere: he was accused of always being ready to make concessions, and to propose schemes of accommodation: nevertheless the

Interim was received. In a fresh diet held at Augsburg (Julius III. being now pope), it was proposed by the emperor to reassemble the council of Trent; but that neither the pope nor his legates should attend it. On the breaking up of this diet, 1551, the protestants prepared a revised form of faith to be laid before the new council; but the Saxon divines proceeded no farther towards Trent than Nuremberg, having received secret orders from Maurice (who conceived that Charles had formed designs against the liberties of the confederate princes) to stop there. That elector, entering into a secret alliance with the king of France, assembled a powerful army 1552, and surprised the emperor at Innspruck so completely, that he was willing to make peace on almost any terms. The consequence was the treaty of Passau, which was long after regarded by the protestant party as the basis of their religious liberty. The Interim was to be null and void, the religious disputes were to be terminated by another diet (not the council of Trent), and all who had been banished for the league at Smalcald, were to be reinstated in their privileges and possessions. By various incidents the assembling of the diet was delayed. It was at length opened, however, at Augsburg, 1555, by prince Frederick; and, after various debates, it was determined 'that the German protestants should be in future free from the jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff and bishops; that they should be left at liberty to enact laws for themselves as to religious sentiments, discipline, and worship; and that all who should persecute them on account of religious opinions, should be proceeded against as public enemies of the empire.' Thus was the reformation established in the principalities of Germany; Olaus Petri, a disciple of Luther, propagated it in Sweden, under the auspices of Gustavus Vasa; Christiern II. himself reformed Denmark, 1521; and great numbers of the French adopted the new form

from the neighbouring church of Geneva, then superintended by Calvin, and, under the name of Huguenots, suffered eventually severe persecution. In the Netherlands, the reformed opinions (in the Calvinistic shape) were received by the Dutch; and their spread in England was singularly rapid. The establishment of the church of England by Edward, the persecuting rule of Mary, and the restoration of tranquillity by Elizabeth, need not here be more than alluded to. Scotland, by means of Knox, adopted the peculiar notions of Calvin, and still retains them under the name of presbytery; but Ireland, under the management of archbishop Brown, an Augustine monk, maintained the ancient faith, save that the prelate removed all images from the churches.

That a necessity should exist for this division of the Church, this rending of the seamless robe of Christ, all reflecting men must regret. One distinguishing merit of the hierarchy had hitherto been its labour and its ability to uphold the principle of unity: in other words, its desire, and moreover its power, to keep the community of believers in the same compact and beautiful consistency and order, that had existed from the apostles' time. With all its tyranny, it must be confessed that no establishment for the governing of men has ever stood its ground so well, or worked so admirably, through the extraordinary period of 1500 years; during nearly a thousand of which it was the arbiter of Europe, in things temporal as well as spiritual. Many of the more learned and virtuous and less violent reformers had not intended the breaking from, but the reformation of, this venerable power; but the mixing up of political with religious matters frustrated their design, and nothing remained but to separate from the great confederacy. Still their intention was to form only *one* other church; or, in other words, to have the new model and rule of faith in every seceding country one

and the same. But breach of unity is like the letting forth of mighty waters; and when the sustaining bond and barrier, which for fifteen long centuries had continued intact, was suddenly removed, no human intelligence could set bounds to the outburst and outpourings that ensued. No human power could collect the escaped floods into one only reservoir. Those reasons which had been assigned for the rupture of the tie, were now appealed to in support of the unwillingness of the mass to be fashioned to any one universal measure, however sensible and advantageous; and from the secession started creeds countless as to number, dividing, and still to divide. Beyond that, Lutherans, and Zuinglians, and Calvinists, were in a moment as much opposed to each other, as they collectively had been to the Church from which they had separated; while the Arian heresy, under Servetus, again appeared its unchristian head. Such, as St. Paul predicted, must ever be the result of schisms, or, as the term should be translated, *seditions*, in the Church of Christ.

The council of Trent, leaving the protestant dispute to be settled by the diet, was continued during 25 sessions, from 1545 to 1563; and its decrees, together with the creed of pope Pius IV. (under whom its sittings closed), contain a summary of the present doctrines of the Roman catholics. That there has been no addition to the errors of the primitive Church since this famous Council, has been one good effect of the division; but that the obstinacy of the Romanists as to the maintenance of their ancient fallacies has been increased, is also to be regarded as resulting from the same cause.

We have recorded our love of church-unity, and our hatred of schism, even to the wish that the corruptions of the primitive Church could have been washed away, without a separation from her communion; we have shown from history, that had the great reformer of Germany been

allowed his share of the *lucre* of indulgences, and our own Henry been permitted by the laxity of the Church to divorce and marry whom he would, neither would Germany have been indebted to the former, nor England to the latter, for a purified form of faith; nevertheless, remembering the blessings that resulted eventually to England from the Reformation, grateful that we have been able to amend some of its defects, and that others may still be amended, we may read its story with mingled sentiments of thankfulness and sorrow. "It was one of those melancholy periods," observes Palmer, in his 'Church of Christ,' "in which men, driven on to desperation, 'try to prevent a nuisance by pulling down the house.' It began in England by transferring to the crown the same fatal prerogatives which had been usurped by the popes against the liberties of the Church. It was made the plea for acts of tyranny and spoliation, which unsettled the foundations of property; it laid precedents against all establishments of charity, learning, and religion; it deprived the country of institutions, which, if wisely reformed, had saved us from some of the worst evils of this day; it covered the land with starving poor, who were to be punished for begging their bread, by being sold and branded as slaves; and it reduced the poorer clergy to such straits, that, in the words of bishop Latimer, 'they were forced to go to service and turn menials.' It was disgraced by sacrilege, which turned altar-cloths into carpets, and chalices into drinking-cups; by the plunder, profanation, and demolition of churches; by the destruction of libraries, so that, by Beale's unsuspicious declaration, 'neither Britain under the Romans and Saxons, nor yet the English people under the Danes and Normans, had ever such damage of their learned monuments;' by the menace of colleges, 'as if (says bishop Ridley) there seemed a design to drive away all civility, learning, and religion out of the nation;'

by the oppression of the poor 'as if (says bishop Burnet), it were a general design among the nobility and gentry to bring the inferior sort to that low and servile state, to which the peasants in many other kingdoms are reduced;' by the denial of tithes; by animosities, tumults, and schisms, which sprung up within the realm; by the reduction of the universities to the last degree of discouragement; 'by faction among the nobility (says Camden), insolence and insurrection among the commons, the debasing the coin, the disorder of the administration, the revolt of the peasantry;' by the depravation of the Eucharist, 'which (says an act of Parliament) is so contemptuously despised and reviled at, and men call it by such vile and unseemly words, as Christian ears abhor to hear rehearsed.' 'The very bible (says Henry himself, in his last speech to parliament, apparently sick of his own work) is turned into wretched rhymes, sung and jingled in every alehouse and tavern; and I am sure (he adds) charity was never in a more languishing condition, virtue never at a lower ebb, and God never less honoured, nor worse served in Christendom.'

In France, the arming of the League against the Huguenots, or French Calvinists, was one of the unhappy consequences of the destruction of church-unity; and the massacre of the Barthélémi, 1572, its ultimate result, remains one of the most grievous stains on the page of ecclesiastical history.

It should be observed that, in England, those who secretly adhered to the old faith, were in the habit, after the abolition of papal supremacy, of drinking at festivals a full glass of wine, or other liquor, to the health of 'le bon Père' (meaning the Pope)—hence the word *bumper*.

In the latter part of this century arose the *Brownists*, or followers of Robert Brown, who, though an ordained priest, preached against the discipline and ceremonies of the church of England; which he de-

nounced as popish and anti-christian. After Brown's death, aged 81, 1630, his disciples took the name of *Independents*; and the sect at length became strong enough, with Cromwell for its coryphæus, to overturn the monarchy, 1649.

ABJECT STATE OF ABBOTS.—The leading monks of each establishment had been offered an annual compensation of moderate amount, on the breaking up of religious houses by Henry VIII.; but many, who were well-connected, rejected the boon, as a composition with heresy, and not a few, still more inclined to buffet fortune in return, preferred begging their bread, or performing the most menial offices for their subsistence. Many an one who had lived in luxury, and in the full possession of dignified authority, now condescended to work laboriously for his daily support; in the hope that the Church would soon throw off her mourning garb, and shine forth with renewed splendour and magnificence. Although disappointed to the last, they closed their lives with humility and decency, and were the means of good to thousands, who, in their more exalted state, would have been deprived of access to them, on occasions beyond the common calls of humanity, in want or sickness. So sensible were many of the reformers of this fact in Elizabeth's time, that excessive alms were granted by them to deprived dignitaries, that they might assist the poor of their districts in their own way; after which, the animosity of the peasantry towards those who had changed their religion, was very rapidly seen to abate.

THE SPANISH ARMADA.—In July 1588, Philip II., asserting his claim to the throne, sent a numerous fleet, to which he gave the title of the invincible armada, to invade England. To oppose it, 20,000 men were dispersed along the southern coasts; and an army of 22,000 foot and 1000 horse were encamped at Tilbury-fort, in Essex; at which place the queen addressed the soldiers with an ani-

inating speech. Another army, of 36,000, was appointed to guard the queen's person; while a considerable fleet, under Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher, protected the coast, and endeavoured to prevent the prince of Parma, who had an army with him in the Netherlands, joining his force to that of the Spaniards. The blowing up of some English fireships led to the first general engagement, wherein lord Howard was chief admiral of the English, and the duke de Medina Sidonia of the Spanish, off Dunkirk, August 8th. The battle began at four in the morning, and lasted till six at night; and on the next morning, the duke's squadron cut their cables and put off to sea, with a view to escape by sailing northwards, intending to make the circuit of the British isles. A pursuit was the consequence; and as the Spanish ships were, by a violent storm, driven upon the coast of Ireland, and upon the shores of the Western isles, of 160 vessels, only 53 returned in safety to Spain. When the ill news was brought to Philip, he replied with a calmness for which he was remarkable in adversity, 'The Lord's will be done! I sent my fleet to fight against the English, and not against the winds: I thank God it is no worse.' Queen Elizabeth received intelligence of her success while at dinner with Sir Nevile Umfreville, at Tilbury Fort; and a roast goose being on the table at the moment, she resolved on commemorating the event so long as she lived, by partaking of a goose on that day annually. Hence the English practice of goose-eating on Michaelmas-day, though a little later than the queen's anniversary, which was August 9th. (*See Goose Feasts.*) The calamity was sensibly felt all over Spain, and there was scarcely a family of rank that did not go into mourning for the death of some near relation; insomuch that Philip, dreading the effect which this universal face of sorrow might produce upon the minds of the people, imitated the conduct of the Roman

senate after the battle of Cannæ, and published an edict to abridge the time of public mourning.

FIRST ENGLISH SETTLEMENT IN THE EAST INDIES.—This was in 1602, when some British merchants erected a factory at Bantam, in the island of Java. The Portuguese had first formed settlements there 1511; but both parties were eventually compelled to yield to the Dutch, who built the town of Batavia, and by degrees enlarged their dominion, until they succeeded, 1760, in dividing the empire of the Susuhunan, or native (Malay) sovereign, into two parts, and in appropriating the greater portion of it to themselves. The Susuhunan became at the same time dependant on the Dutch government, and has since been compelled to sell to it, at fixed and low prices, all the rice, pepper, sugar, and coffee grown in his territories. When Holland was united to the empire of Buonaparte, the British took possession of the island in 1811, but restored it to the Dutch 1816. As Java forms a portion of what may be called the world of islands, and is necessarily out of the history of the great continents, we shall briefly speak of the various groups spreading from the south of China over the vast Pacific Ocean.

They are divided into three great clusters, called the Oriental Archipelago, Australasia, and Polynesia. **THE ORIENTAL ARCHIPELAGO** lies immediately under the equator; and the isles, being well watered by fine rivers springing from their numerous mountains, are extremely fertile in spices, rice, and teak timber. Cultivated properly, the plains would be extraordinarily productive; but they are by no means well managed. The Dutch are almost wholly masters of the archipelago, save as respects the Philippines, which belong to Spain. The natives consist of two races; Malays, brown in colour, and Papuas or eastern negroes, perfectly black, and perfectly savage. *Java* is the most populous and cultivated isle:

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Batavia, on its north coast, is the capital of all the Dutch settlements, and the centre of their trade. Rice and pepper are cultivated to a great extent; and it has noble forests of teak. *Sumatra*, a larger, but not a very productive isle, is famous for its camphor and pepper; and tin in vast quantities is obtained from the islet of Banca in its vicinity. *Borneo*, the largest island in the world after New Holland, contains valuable mines of gold and diamonds, which a few Chinese settlers work. The country however is wretchedly cultivated. *Celebes*, or Macassar, is a fine and populous island, not much cultivated, since the native people prefer fishing to farming; but it is capable of growing fine maize, rice, cotton, and tobacco. It has excellent iron and gold mines, which, though but little worked, have given forth beautiful specimens of both metals. The whole coast abounds with fish; and the number of turtle taken is so great, that 50,000 pounds weight of tortoise-shell are annually exported. The natives are famous for their black, silky hair, which is allowed by both sexes to hang in graceful curls on the shoulders, while the upper part is ornamented with jewels. *The Moluccas* are a group, noted for their spontaneous growth of the clove; and the isle of Amboyna is wholly devoted by the Dutch to that valuable spice. *The Bandas* are, in the same way, celebrated for the nutmeg. The fruit is of the size and form of a peach, and, when ripe, the fleshy part separates into two nearly equal halves, exposing the kernel, surrounded by an arillus, the former being the nutmeg, the latter the mace. From the mace the natives extract a valuable oil, which they make an important article of trade. *The Philippines*, or Manillas, are a fertile group, but much neglected by their owners, the Spaniards. They were discovered by Magellan 1521, and being afterwards conquered by Philip II. of Spain, were named in his honour. They are 1100 in number, and the largest,

Charles's to bring all to conformity, confirmed it in obstinacy. The Solemn League and Covenant was entered into, arms were resorted to, much blood was shed, and the names of Cameron, Melville, and others, are registered among the great fomenters of division. It was not until the period of the Revolution, that the Covenanters were numerous and powerful enough to found their church, 1689.

ORIGIN OF GOOSE FEASTS.—It has been shown (*p.* 709, *Vol. I.*) that Christiern I. instituted *goose eating* in Denmark, in commemoration of St. Martin. The latter is celebrated in catholic annals for his piety and Christian charity. He was the son of a military tribune, and served in the Roman army under Constantine and his sons, 336, chiefly in Gaul; where, on one occasion, observing a naked beggar at the gate of Amiens, he rent his military cloak in twain, and gave the wretch half. A subsequent vision, wherein our Lord appeared to him clad in this same half garment, induced him to quit the army, and obtain ordination; and in 374 he was made bishop of Tours by pope Damasus. Miracles were alleged to be now frequently worked by him; and after his decease, 400, aged 84, he was acknowledged their patron saint by the Christian Gauls, and was the first confessor of the Latin branch of the Church, whom the hierarchy allowed to be communed with in prayer as a saint. But why goose-eating belongs properly to this day (November 11), remains to be told. When the expedition of the Gauls under Brennus against Rome had failed, through the cackling of the geese of the Capitol, 390, *B.C.*, the foiled invaders, then druidical heathens, offered a yearly sacrifice of that bird to Bacchus, with a hope, through that lesser divinity's intercession, to recover the favour of their great deity, Mars. When converted to Christianity (and this, according to Romish annals, by St. Martin), the offering was continued by the Gauls, but to the saint instead

of the god; and this not in sacrifice, but in form of a genial feast, styled 'Martinalia,' whereat the goose figured as the most honoured dish. Hence writes Naorgeorgus,

*Altera Martinus dein Bacchanalia præbet;
Quem colit anseribus populus, multoque
Lyao.*

Queen Elizabeth, from the accidental circumstance of a roast goose being on the table before her when she received intelligence of the dispersion of the Armada, resolved always to commemorate the event by a similar dinner on August 9th; and she thus originated the practice of an annual goose feast in England, which, for convenience-sake, was delayed subsequently by her subjects till September 29th, the feast of St. Michael, the bird being then most plentiful in this country.

HENTZNER'S VISIT TO ENGLAND, 1588.—We necessarily go to foreign travellers for pictures of our own every day life, which unfortunately it is nobody's business at home to record. Hentzner, a German matter-of-fact tutor, who visited England in Elizabeth's reign, thus writes (in Latin) of London, the court, and the people of the time. 'A wonderful number of most learned men, who have shone extraordinarily among writers, is always to be found throughout Britain, and especially in this city (London).—While we were at this show (Bartholomew-fair), one of our company, Tobias Solander, had his pocket picked of his purse, with nine crowns *du soleil*, which, without doubt, was so cleverly taken from him by an Englishman, who always kept very close to him, that the doctor did not in the least perceive it.—Without the city are some theatres, (Shakspeare's plays must then have been exhibiting,) where English actors represent *almost every day* tragedies and comedies to very numerous audiences; these are concluded with excellent music, variety of dances, and the excessive applauses of those who are present. At these

spectacles, and everywhere else, the English are constantly smoking tobacco in this manner: they have pipes on purpose, made of clay, into the farther end of which they put the herb, so dry that it may be rubbed into powder; and putting fire to it, they draw the smoke into their mouths, which they puff out again through their nostrils. In these theatres, fruits, such as apples, pears, and nuts, according to the season, are carried about to be sold, as well as ale and wine.—We arrived next at the royal palace of Greenwich. It was here Elizabeth, the present queen, was born—and here she generally resides, particularly in summer, for the delightfulness of the situation.

We were admitted, by an order from the lord chamberlain, into the presence-chamber, hung with rich tapestry, and the floor, after the English fashion, strown with hay, through which the queen commonly passes in her way to chapel. At the door stood a gentleman dressed in velvet, with a gold chain, whose office was to introduce to the queen any person of distinction that should come to wait upon her: it was Sunday, when there is usually the greatest attendance of nobility. In the same hall were the archbishop of Canterbury, the bishop of London, a great many councillors of state, officers of the crown, and gentlemen who waited the queen's coming out—which she did from her own apartment, when it was time to go to prayers, attended in the following manner:—First went barons, earls, knights of the garter, all richly dressed, and bare-headed; next came the chancellor, bearing the seals in a silk purse, between two, one of which carried the royal sceptre, the other the sword of state in a red scabbard, studded with golden fleurs-de-lis, the point upwards; next came the queen, in her 56th year, very majestic; her face oblong, but wrinkled; her eyes small, yet black, and pleasant; her nose a little hooked, her lips narrow, and her teeth black, (a defect to which the English seem

subject, from their too great use of sugar); she had in her ears two very rich pearls with drops; she wore false hair, and that red; upon her head she had a small crown of gold; her bosom was uncovered, as all the English ladies have it till they marry; and she had on a necklace of exceedingly fine jewels; her hands were small, her fingers long, and her stature neither tall nor low; her air was stately, her manner of speaking mild and obliging. She was dressed in white silk, bordered with pearls of the size of beans, and over it a mantle of black silk, shot with silver threads; her train was very long, the end of it borne by a marchioness; instead of a chain, she had an oblong collar of gold and jewels. As she went along, she spoke very graciously, first to one, then to another, in English, French, and Italian; for besides being well skilled in Greek and Latin, and the languages I have mentioned, she is mistress of Spanish, Scotch, and Dutch. Whoever speaks to her, it is kneeling; now and then she raises some with her hand. While we were there, William Slavator, a Bohemian baron, had letters to present to her; and she, after pulling off her glove, gave him her right hand to kiss, sparkling with rings and jewels, a mark of particular favour. Whenever she turned her face as she was going along, everybody fell down on their knees. The ladies of the court followed next to her, very handsome and well-shapen, and for the most part dressed in white. She was guarded on each side by 25 gentlemen-pensioners, with gilt battle-axes. In the anti-chamber next the hall, where we were, petitions were presented to her, and she received them most graciously, which occasioned the acclamation of 'God save the queen Elizabeth!' She answered it with '*I thanke you, myne good peupel.*' In the chapel was excellent music. As soon as the service was over, which scarce exceeded half an hour, the queen returned in the same state, and prepared to go to dinner. A

gentleman entered the room bearing a rod, and along with him another bearing a table-cloth, which, after they had both kneeled three times with the utmost veneration, they spread upon the table, and after kneeling again, retired; then came two others, one with a rod again, the other with a salt-seller, a plate, and bread. When they had kneeled, and placed what was brought upon the table, they too retired; at last came an unmarried countess, and along with her a married one, bearing a tasting-knife; the former was dressed in white silk, who, when she had prostrated herself three times in the most graceful manner, approached the table, and rubbed it with bread and salt, with as much awe as if the queen had been present. When they had waited there a little while, the yeomen of the guard entered bare-headed, clothed in scarlet, with a golden rose upon their backs, bringing in at each turn a course of dishes served in plate, most of it gilt—these dishes were received by a gentleman in the same order they were brought, and placed upon the table, while the lady taster gave to each guard a mouthful to eat of the particular dish he had brought, for fear of poison. During the time that this guard (which consists of the tallest and stoutest men that can be found in all England,) were bringing dinner, 12 trumpets and two kettle-drums made the hall ring for half an hour together. At the end of all this ceremonial, a number of unmarried ladies appeared, who, with particular solemnity, lifted the meat from the table, and conveyed it to the queen's inner and more private chamber; where, after she had chosen for herself, the rest goes to the ladies of the court. The queen dines and sups alone, with very few attendants; and it is very seldom that anybody, foreigner or native, is admitted at that time, and then only at the intercession of somebody in power.' Hentzner gives the following delectable sketch of general manners. 'The

English are serious, like the Germans—lovers of shew—liking to be followed wherever they go by whole troops of servants, who wear their master's arms in silver fastened to their left arms, and are not undeservedly ridiculed for wearing tails down their backs. They excel in dancing and music; for they are active and lively, though of a thicker make than the French: they cut their hair close on the middle of the head, letting it grow on either side: they are good sailors, and *better pirates, cunning, treacherous, and thievish.* Above 300 are said to be hanged annually in London: beheading with them is less infamous than hanging. They give the wall as the place of honour. Hawking is the general sport of the gentry. They are more polite in eating than the French; devouring less bread, but more meat—which they roast in perfection. They put a good deal of sugar in their drink; their beds are covered with tapestry, even those of farmers. They are often molested with the scurvy, said to have first crept into England with the Norman conquest. Their houses are commonly of two stories, except in London, where they are of three and four, though but seldom of four; they are built of wood, those of the richer sort with bricks; their roofs are low, and, where the owner has money, covered with lead. They are powerful in the field, successful against their enemies, impatient of anything like slavery, vastly fond of great noises that fill the ear—such as the firing of cannon, drums, and the ringing of bells; so that it is common for a number of them, that have got a glass in their heads, to go up into some belfry, and ring the bells for hours together, for the sake of exercise. If they see a foreigner very well made, or particularly handsome, they will say, It is a pity he is not an Englishman.'

THE ENGLISH POOR-LAWS ESTABLISHED.—When the monasteries of England were suppressed at the re-

formation, the unemployed poor, who had been used to derive their support from them, were left destitute. To remedy this evil, the parliament gave power to the justices to lay a general assessment, 1571; and by subsequent acts it was ordained, that the churchwardens and overseers of parishes, with the consent of two justices, one of whom is of the *quorum* (that is, who has had a defined legal experience, and possesses a greater estate than the rest), shall be empowered to raise weekly, or otherwise, by taxation of every inhabitant, whether parson, vicar, or other, materials for employing the poor, and competent sums for their relief. The sums thus levied for the poor, however trifling at the onset, have in our day become enormous, eight millions sterling per annum barely covering the charge; that is, more than a seventh of the sum required to carry on the government, even including the interest of the national debt. The demands have been slightly checked by the new poor-law enactment of 1835, which ceased to offer, as the ancient code had done, a premium to idleness and dishonesty.

Under any form of government whatever, the compulsory support of the poor, without reference to religious motives, is a political evil; for when we have acknowledged the legal right of the pauper to a portion of the property of the wealthy, we have admitted a precedent, so far attended with danger, that the poor may eventually decide for themselves what share they will accept from the purses of the affluent. It is in vain that the landlord is secure in the rents of his land, and the farmer in the fruits of his capital, while there is a claim constantly growing up to share in those rents, and to participate in those profits. To rents and the profits of occupation there must be necessarily some limit; but it is obvious that while the poor-laws continue, there can be no limit to the demand made upon both landlord and farmer in the shape of pauperism. The poor-rate is not, like any other

tax, fixed and definite in its amount, but is an incumbrance altogether unlimited—without length, depth, height, or any other compass or proportion; and being ever craving and rapacious, it must eventually absorb everything, unless the most potent checks be constantly applied. One of the baneful consequences of the poor-laws in this country has been the breaking of the links which in days of yore bound together the higher and lower classes; links firmly cemented by the favour, protection, and good will of the former, and by the respect, the gratitude, and the fidelity of the latter. Charity by act of parliament has dissolved this valuable social compact; and from the one party bestowing with reluctance, and the other receiving the gift as a right, a repulsive feeling is excited between those who have money and those who have none; the reverse of what the beneficence of both God and man demand. According to recent estimates, the paupers of England and Wales amount to 2,000,000, among whom the eight millions are distributed: provision is also made in Scotland for the poor, but on a safer plan; and it is only recently that the English commons have become acquainted with it by inquiry.

The Scottish poor-laws were established 1579 (12 Jac. VI.) by an act copied from the statute of Elizabeth, but omitting all those regulations which have reference to the furnishing of work to able-bodied paupers. The bill introduced for the first time the principle of compulsory assessment into Scotland; but with the important limitation, that it confines all legal title to relief to the aged and impotent; while it directs that all 'idle and lazy vagabonds (including all common labourers 'being personnes abile in body, living idle, and fleeing labour') shall be punished as vagrants.' There is not a word said in the statute about providing *work* for unemployed persons; nor is any countenance given to the notion that the wages of labour may

be made up out of the poor-rates : all such difficulties must be surmounted by other expedients. The fundamental principle, thus briefly explained, has led in practice to the important distinction that exists in Scotland between the *regular* and the *occasional* poor. The first receive a constant supply from the parish funds : the latter are only assisted when they are kept from work by sickness or accidental causes : the occasional poor, therefore, cannot insist on being supported by compulsory means.

Into Ireland poor-laws have only very recently and partially been introduced ; but there is something better. There is a spirit existing among the poor there to help one another—a spirit observable in such force in no other country. It is wonderful what kind offices they will do for one another ; and where they have next to nothing to give, they will, as recorded by the excellent bishop Jebb, walk, and otherwise toil for their more necessitous fellow-creatures, in the most incredible manner. Much of this must be attributed to the absence of poor-laws. An English gentleman entered an Irish cabin of the meanest sort, wherein was nothing but a box to sit on, to make some inquiries about the village ; and while there, two beggars entered, not together, but with an interval of some minutes, each with the prayer, ‘ Plase yer, give a poor cratur a tather ! ’ On both occasions the woman of the hut went to a corner, where was a potatoe-heap, and selecting three *large* potatoes, gave them to the respective applicants. To the inquiry of the visiter, ‘ How one so evidently poor could afford to give so much ? ’ she replied with animation, ‘ Bless yer honour ! *cud* we lit a pure brither starve for a tather’s sake, and we wid plenty ov em ? What would the father (the priest) say ? ’

THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW, 1572.—The Reformation advanced in France in a manner singularly opposed to that of its progress

in our own country. Being the act of the civil magistrate, it was conducted with moderation in England ; and there was a sort of compromise with the feelings of the adherents of the ancient faith. In France, where the ruling powers were inimical, a protestant meant, not merely one who shook off the papal authority, but who denounced the pope as anti-christ, and the ceremonies of the Romish church as the worship of Belial. In their tenets and political condition, the Huguenots closely resembled the English puritans of the seventeenth century : like them discountenanced, and at length persecuted by the court, they became a distinct people in their native country—abhorring, and abhorred by, their catholic fellow-subjects, united to each other by the closest ties of religion and temporal interest, and implicitly submitting, in peace and in war, to the guidance of their leaders. The wars between these irreconcilable parties were, as might be expected, frequent and bloody. In 1570, Charles IX. had concluded a third treaty with his protestant subjects ; and the latter, having suspicions of his sincerity, on account of the unusually favourable terms of the compact, began to display their distrust by a refusal, as respected the leaders, to join the court. Charles, however, then only 20, declared that he was tired of civil dissensions ; that though his mother Catherine and the duke of Guise were for war, he was for peace ; and that the present should be styled ‘ his own peace.’ The youth and open temper of the king operated in removing the distrust of the veteran Coligni, admiral of France, and leader of the Huguenots in conjunction with Henri of Navarre ; and he accordingly repaired in 1571 to Blois, where Charles then held his court. In 1572, to evince his sincerity, the king gave his sister Margaret in marriage to Henri of Navarre ; and the nuptials were celebrated at Paris with great pomp, on Monday, August 18. Most of the protestant nobility, with

the admiral at their head, attended on the occasion ; and as their prejudices would not let them enter a church where mass was celebrated, the ceremony was performed in a temporary building, near the cathedral of Notre Dame. The Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday were passed in all sorts of festivities. On Friday, the 22nd, Coligni attended a council at the Louvre, and went afterwards with the king to the tennis-court, where Charles and the duke of Guise played a game against two Huguenot gentlemen. As the admiral walked slowly home, reading a paper, an arquebuss was discharged at him from the upper window of a house occupied by a dependant of the duke of Guise ; and while one ball shattered his hand, another lodged in his right arm. The king was still playing at tennis with the duke, when the news of this attack reached him. He threw down his racket, exclaiming, ' Shall I never have peace ? ' and retired instantly to his apartment. He soon after joined the king of Navarre and the prince of Condé in their lamentations, and promised, with threats of vengeance, to punish the guilty. The admiral's wounds were declared not to be dangerous ; and as he wished to see the king alone, Charles went, unaccompanied, to his chamber. After the conference, however, had gone on some time, the queen-mother (who, with the duke of Anjou, afterwards Henri III., and the duchess of Nemours, had planned the admiral's death, and not the Guises,) arrived at Coligni's abode, and drew her son away, but not before she had heard the admiral advise the king to give less authority in future to herself and her other son, the duke of Anjou. The attempt at assassination having failed, the conspirators met on the morning of the 23rd, in secret conference. Baffled revenge, and the dread of vindictive retaliation, augmented the ferocity of their counsels. After dinner on that day (Saturday), the hour for which at that time was noon, the queen-mother was seen to enter the

king's chamber ; where Anjou and some lords of the catholic party joined her speedily. According to Charles's account of this meeting, (as reported by his sister Margaret,) he was then suddenly informed of a treasonable conspiracy on the part of the Huguenots against himself and family ; was told that the admiral and his friends were at that moment plotting his destruction ; and that if he did not promptly anticipate the designs of his enemies, and if he waited even until the next morning, he might be sacrificed. Under this impression, he gave a reluctant, hurried consent to the proposition of his counsellors, exclaiming, as he left the room, ' that he hoped not a single Huguenot would be left alive to reproach him with the deed.' The plan of the massacre had been previously arranged, and its execution intrusted to the dukes of Guise, Anjou, and Aumale. It wanted two hours of the appointed instant : all was still at the Louvre. A short time before the signal was given, Charles, his mother, and Anjou, repaired to an open balcony, and awaited the result in breathless silence. The awful suspense was broken by the report of a pistol. Charles shook with horror ; his frame trembled ; his resolution failed him ; and cold drops stood upon his brow. But the die was cast—the bell of a neighbouring church tolled—and the work of slaughter commenced. This was at two o'clock in the morning of St. Bartholomew's day. Before five, the admiral and his friends were murdered, and their remains treated with brutal indignity. Revenge and hatred being thus satiated on the Huguenot chiefs, the tocsin was sounded from the parliament-house, calling on the populace of Paris to join in the carnage, and protect their religion and their king against Huguenot treason. It is not necessary to enter into the details of this most perfidious butchery. ' Death to the Huguenots ! treason ! courage ! our game is in the toils ! kill every man of them ! it is the king's order ! ' shouted the court-

leaders, as they galloped through the streets, cheering the armed citizens to the slaughter. The fury of the court was thus seconded by the long-pent-up hatred of the Parisian populace; and the Huguenots were butchered in their beds, on endeavouring to escape, without any regard to age, sex, or condition. On the 26th, Charles went in state to the parliament of Paris, and avowed himself the author of the massacre, claiming the merit of having thereby given peace to his kingdom: he denounced the admiral and his adherents as traitors, and declared that he had timely defeated a conspiracy to murder his own family. Such was (according to the least partial authorities) 'le Barthélemi,' as the French designate a transaction so disgraceful to their country.

THE BATTLE OF LEPANTO, 1571, in which the Turks lost all their navy, was gained by Don John of Austria, admiral Doria being his chief captain. The force on each side was immense; and the loss of the Turks 32,000 slain, and 3500 prisoners, with 161 galleys sunk, and sixty taken. It is considered to have been one of the most remarkable sea-fights in history.

THE DUTCH REPUBLIC FOUNDED.—The Netherlands, or Low Countries, including the modern Holland and Belgium, being a Spanish possession, the duke of Alva was sent by Philip II. to settle the disturbances which were constantly occurring there on the score of religion. William, prince of Orange-Nassau, however, one of the most influential nobles, aided by counts Hoorn and Egmont, took up arms, and succeeded, 1579, after a lengthened struggle, in separating seven of the provinces from Spanish dominion. These, by a league called the union of Utrecht, were erected into a republic, by the title of the Seven United Provinces, or *Holland*, from the name of one of the seven. The Belgic provinces had equally joined in the insurrection, but were subdued by the prince of Parma, the brother-

in-law of Philip II., and afterwards added to Austria. (*See Netherlands during the Revolt.*)

THE EDICT OF NANTES was issued by Henry IV. of France, 1598, to protect the protestants in his dominions from the fury of their catholic brethren: it was revoked by Louis XIV., 1685.

RAGE FOR SCHOOL FOUNDING.—Until the time of Elizabeth, there were few schools in England since the destruction of the monasteries, beyond the two universities. Boys of fourteen then went thither; and the statutes were entirely framed for boys. For instance, one at Cambridge enjoined that *marbles* should not be played on the senate-house steps. But when Elizabeth had settled the Church, it became the practice of wealthy tradesmen to retire to their native towns and found schools; for which the queen always readily granted a charter, and frequently added money. A liberal education could now be commenced by almost as many as needed it, at very little cost; and those Elizabethan schools, which still exist throughout the country, have been the gentle nurses of some of England's brightest ornaments in church and state.

THE THIRTY-NINE ARTICLES PROMULGATED.—A body of articles for the Church of England had been published with the Liturgy by Edward VI.; but as they were in the main favourable to the belief of the Church before the Reformation, a revision was undertaken by the bishops of Elizabeth; and, after passing in Convocation, 1562, the amended series was confirmed by royal authority. The articles were again looked over, 1571, by the then prelates, and no ground for change appearing, were again ratified; and Charles I. subsequently confirmed them after a like examination, since which time they have remained unchallenged. The law requires a subscription to the 39 articles by all persons coming for episcopal ordination,

by all clergymen inducted to a benefice, by heads of colleges, and students of the two Universities, and (properly) by all schoolmasters, whether clerical or not.

THE NEW STYLE introduced in Italy by pope Gregory XIII., 1582, whereby that year lost ten days. Various attempts had ever been made by Eastern nations to measure the solar year by an exact number of days, a thing in itself impossible; and it was at length seen by observers in the western countries, that by the introduction of bissextile days into the calendar by the Cæsars, a difference had arisen to the amount of ten whole days in the course of time, owing to the odd minutes and seconds exceeding, in each bissextile year, the true period of the sun's progress. The only method of correcting this was to give up ten days of any one year; and Gregory proposed that, in 1582, March should have only 21 days, the 11th being called the 21st; and also that in future, three days should be omitted in every 400 years, as the means of keeping correct time with the sun. This mode of reckoning was not used in England until 1752, nor is it yet admitted by the Russians. *Bissextile* is from the Latin. Julius Cæsar first ordained that every fourth year should consist of 366 days; and this he effected by making two 23rd days of February. The 23rd of February was the sixth *Kalendas Martii*, that is *sextus*: and this *sextus* being doubled, produced the *bis-sextile* year, or *twice-sixth-kalend-of-March* year.

WESTMINSTER SCHOOL FOUNDED 1560, by the Queen, as St. Peter's College, for 40 scholars, who receive an education preparatory for the university. As in the other public schools, many private scholars are also educated, sons of the nobility and gentry; so that the number of pupils is at present 300 at least. The boys on the foundation wear the academical dress, to distinguish them from the rest. The 40 on the foundation are called King's scholars, or, during

a Queen's reign, Queen's scholars; and are elected every year from the boys in the school, who are called 'the town boys.' Notice is given to the head master about the beginning of Lent, by such of the boys as may be desirous of being elected to the foundation; and this is called 'standing out for college.' Previously to the delivery of the names to the head master, every boy who is then admitted as a 'minor candidate,' has secured the aid of an older boy already in college, whose office it has been to train him for the competition to which he is subjected, before he can attain the object of his wishes. The training consists in the exercise of the memory in regard to grammar; and at the time a boy enters upon the field of competition, he ought to know both the Latin and the Greek grammar by heart, from beginning to end. The boy who trains is called 'the help,' the minor candidate 'his man.' When the names are given in, and the boys are regularly admitted as minor candidates, the exercises for competition begin. A lesson from a Greek epigram book in the morning, and from the Excerpta of Ovid's *Metamorphoses* in the afternoon, is set, and is prepared carefully by the boys with their helps, who furnish them with rules of grammar, which they are to ask their competitors. When the boys are called up before the head master, the work of competition begins, and this is called 'the challenge;' the boy who is lowest challenges upon the next above him. The head master sits at his table as moderator, and the 'helps' stand by, to see that their 'men' have fair play. A page is set by the head master; and the junior boy, or the boy who is to challenge, has the liberty of selecting any two lines from the page, which his competitor is to construe. If he can correct him in the construction, he turns him, or, as it is called in the school, 'takes' him. The competitor thus turned, has the same liberty of selecting another two lines, which his opponent is to con-

strue ; and if he can correct him, he resumes his place. This may happen several times. After the construction, on the first challenge, which is called an unlimited challenge, the boys are allowed to ask grammatical rules, till one of them is exhausted. The successful candidate has then gained a place ; and so he may go on, from the bottom to the top of the list. In the challenges which ensue, the number of questions is limited—a certain number in Greek, and a certain number in Latin. A boy may be called up to the challenge twice in the week ; and during the intervening time, he is never without his grammar in his hand. These challenges, with the assistance of the helps, go on till Easter, and the success till then depends in some (and perhaps in great) measure upon the abilities and knowledge of the helps ; inasmuch as they supply the boy who is to challenge with all the rules and questions to be asked, which he must learn with extreme accuracy, while the boy to be challenged upon must rely upon his own knowledge of grammar ; and this is perfectly fair, inasmuch as every minor candidate challenges in his turn. After Easter, the assistance of the help is so far withdrawn, that he can no longer supply rules or questions to his man, nor prepare the lessons to be said ; the boys have it to do themselves, and do not know what lesson they are to learn, till they come into school. They are thrown upon their own resources, and have to form their own questions, and ask the rules from their own memory ; their helps, as before, standing by at the challenge, to see fair play. Thus they go on till about a fortnight before Whitsuntide ; and their places in college are determined by the last challenge. Of course, the higher they stand at the termination of this competition, the more honourable is their post considered to be. The head boy is 'chaired' by his schoolfellows ; and other ceremonies are kept up, which it is needless to repeat now. At

Whitsuntide, when the election to the universities takes place, the successful candidates are presented to the Dean of Westminster, and are admitted as Queen's scholars. At the same time the examination of the higher boys for the universities takes place. These are called 'major candidates.' They are examined in the presence of the Dean of Westminster, the Dean of Christ Church, Oxford, the Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, the head and undermaster of the school ; and by two examiners who attend the Dean of Christ Church and the Master of Trinity. If the examination is satisfactory, four may be elected as students of Christ Church, and three as scholars of Trinity. This examination resembles others of the same character. Such is the plan of the college at Westminster. It consists of four elections—junior, second, third, and senior—each occupying the space of one year. The age of standing out is from 12 to 15 ; after 15 a boy is superannuated. In the act of standing out, no favour can possibly be shown ; the exercises are in public, and create the greatest interest in the school. The alteration of the places resembles the state of a poll ; for among boys who are clever and well-matched there is often great fluctuation. And the excellence of the system consists, not only in the circumstance that the faculties of boys are called into action while they are in the challenge and preparing for it, but still more in that part of it which commits the training of the candidate to one who has himself gone through the ordeal: *docendo discis* is an old and true saying, and it may be questioned which derives the greater benefit from the trial—the help or his man.

MERCHANT TAILORS' SCHOOL
FOUNDED by Sir Thomas White, 1561.
This has no foundation beyond the masterships, every boy, for his classical education (which he obtains by a daily visit to the school), having eight guineas per year to pay, and 5*l.* 2*s.*

on entrance. The number of pupils is limited to 250; and there are many university exhibitions.

HARROW SCHOOL FOUNDED, 1571, by John Lyon, for the free education of all natives of Harrow; but as few have ever availed themselves of the privilege, the masters of the foundation have boarded the sons of noblemen and gentlemen, to the amount of between 300 and 400: all the university privileges being bestowed on those selected by the head-master, who has five assistants. To encourage archery, a silver arrow used annually to be contended for, by the will of the founder; but public speeches are now substituted for that display.

DUBLIN UNIVERSITY FOUNDED.—In 1312 Clement V. issued a bull, upon the application of Lech, archbishop of Dublin, for the foundation of an university in Dublin; but the death of the prelate occasioned a delay of eight years, when Alexander de Bicknor partially carried the design into effect, 1320. Though a building was commenced, the funds were soon found insufficient; and the work was necessarily abandoned. The Irish, however, never lost sight of the advantages likely to be derived from such an institution; and in 1591, at the especial direction of queen Elizabeth, the first stone of what was designated Trinity College (*Collegium Sanctæ et Individuæ Trinitatis*), was laid by Thomas Smyth, then mayor of Dublin, in the suburbs of that capital, Fitzwilliam being at the time lord deputy of Ireland. Nothing but the zeal and interest of archbishop Loftus could however have sustained the institution during the subsequent civil war: he made its necessities a consideration of state; and obtained frequent grants of money from Elizabeth in its aid. The university has now a chancellor, vice-chancellor, provost, vice provost, and 19 professors of various sciences; and by a recent arrangement, the privileges *ad eundem* are granted to all its graduates by the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, on keeping

nominal terms, &c.; that is, a graduate of Trinity College, of a certain class, may take the same degree at those universities, without examination, if so inclined.

MARISCHAL COLLEGE, FOUNDED in New Aberdeen, 1594, by George Keith, earl Marischal. It has a library of 10,000 volumes, and 106 bursaries, varying from 5*l.* to 50*l.* per year. The number of students is about 220. In some things the respective directors of the college and university of Aberdeen co-operate; but all attempts to unite the two establishments as one body have hitherto proved fruitless.

FIRST NOTICE OF CRICKET.—This manly game is of British origin, and is earliest alluded to in 'The Booke of Sportes,' printed by William How, 1574, being then simply a play of bat and ball practised by the rustics of Kent, Surrey, and Sussex. When exactly it became the sport of gentlemen is unknown; but there is little doubt that it was not thought of as a game of science till the close of the 18th century. The rules of cricket are now subject to variations, at the pleasure of the Mary-le-bone Club, London, which meets at Lord's cricket-ground, St. John's-wood. The laws and decisions of that society are recognised by cricket-players in general, in the same way that the Jockey Club is held definitive in questions relative to the turf. Cricket, being our only national game, if we except bell-ringing, is, by the attention it has recently received from the better classes, becoming yearly a more skilful gymnastic exercise; and we believe the village of Mitcham, Surrey, among suburban places, ranks foremost for the antiquity of its match-ground, and the steady cultivation of the sport by its inhabitants and the surrounding gentry. The origin of the word cricket is clearly *krikos* (the same as *kirkos*), Greek for a ring, or circle, the people standing in a ring to see it played, just as the boxing game is styled, in plain English, 'the ring;' a common

mode, in early times, of designating out-door games.

THE ROYAL EXCHANGE, LONDON, founded, 1556. (*See Gresham.*)

GRESHAM COLLEGE, founded, 1579. (*See Gresham.*)

ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY instituted, 1600, with a capital of 72,000*l.*

THE TURKEY COMPANY instituted, 1579.

LOTTERIES first allowed in England, 1569, but only to raise sums for repairing the fortifications on the coasts. Money or chance lotteries date 1612. Pieces of plate were the prizes of the former, and they were drawn at St. Paul's, London.

WOVEN STOCKINGS invented by Rev. Mr. Lee of Cambridge, 1589. Henry VIII. wore cloth hose; but knit stockings of worsted and even silk were occasionally imported in his reign from Spain, where all the better order wore them. Queen Elizabeth, on being presented with a pair of knit Spanish black silk stockings, 1560, by Mrs. Montague, her silk-woman, would never wear cloth hose more.

THE BRITISH WHALE FISHERY at Spitzbergen established, 1598.

TULIPS first brought to England from the Netherlands, 1598. So absurdly violent was the taste for this flower, in its improved state, at the close of the eighteenth century, that so much as 100 guineas was given on several occasions for a single plant.

THE OXFORD LIBRARY REBUILT, and filled with books by Sir Thomas Bodley, 1598.

VIRGINIA, in North America, colonized by Sir Walter Raleigh, and so named in honour of the queen, 1584. The whole coast had been called by Cabot, Newfoundland; a name now only given to an island in the neighbourhood.

PHYSIC GARDENS first constructed in England, to supply apothecaries, 1599. These are now carried on in various parts of the kingdom on a large scale, on the principles of farming, especially at Mitcham, in Surrey;

where the plantations of Major Moore have been long celebrated for their extent and valuable produce. The major's crops of lavender, roses, and other fragrant herbs, are by no means surpassed even by the far-famed rose-fields of Persia and the East.

SAINT HELENA COLONIZED by England, 1600. It is now the well-known resting place of British ships passing to and from India; and is sufficiently distinguished by the imprisonment and death of Buonaparte within its rocky precincts.

THE POTATOE first known in Europe. Sir Walter Raleigh found, among the Spanish settlers on the coast of Guiana, on his expedition to discover new lands, 1584, this invaluable esculent root, called by the people *batala*. On receiving a portion of the forfeited estates in Ireland, 1586, he planted the first-known potatoes in his grounds at Youghal, in Cork; but the person to whom he entrusted their growth, mistaking the *apples* of the plant for the fruit, and finding their taste nauseous, neglected the roots. When the ground, on a visit from the knight, was turned up, some years after the original planting, the roots had exceedingly multiplied; and the Irish being instructed in their use, they soon became a favourite article of food among the poor. But there are many curious stories told of the prejudices which at first existed against the plant among the Irish gentry. Some derived their antipathy from the fact of a whole litter of pigs having died on drinking the water in which some potatoes *with their apples* had been boiled; and application was even made to the lord-lieutenant for an ordinance to forbid the use of so poisonous a food. In the present day, a very agreeable alcohol is made by distillation from the flour or starch of potatoes, nearest in character to the French brandy.

TOBACCO introduced from Virginia to England, by Sir Walter Raleigh, 1585. It was for a century used alone for smoking; after which it was manufactured into snuff. Until 1779

no success attended the planting of tobacco in Europe ; but it was found to grow fairly in Ireland, and there are now fine specimens of both Irish and English tobacco. Still the American plant is thought superior ; and as tobacco is produced across the Atlantic abundantly, and at little cost, it is probable no great attention will ever be paid to its cultivation here. The opposition of king James to its use is noticed elsewhere ; and it is laughably told, that when some persons first saw Sir Walter sitting involved in the clouds that emanated from his pipe, in which he greatly indulged, they thought he was on fire, and ran with buckets of water, to extricate him from his perilous situation.

STRAWBERRIES first grown in England, having been brought by the Spaniards from Mexico, or Chili, into Europe. In the present day, the sale of this delicate fruit is a very important matter to poor Welch girls, who crowd up to London on foot, to perform a labour Herculean in its nature. These young women carry upon their heads baskets of strawberries, of 50 pounds weight, from Isleworth, Brentford, and Hammersmith to London ; walking, in their repeated course, so laden, during each day, from 25 to 30 miles. In 'the strawberry season' (40 days,) each individual nets 10*l.*, after paying all expenses of her coarse living ; and with 5*l.* more, earned in gathering and marketing vegetables in other 60 days, she travels back as she came, to her native mountains, rich in her hard-won dowry of 15*l.*, soon to commence a rustic establishment for life. The morals of these young people are most exemplary ; and, graced as they commonly are with great personal beauty, it is singular that their virtuous exertions have not been the theme of at least *one* poet's lay.

WATCHES first imported into England from Germany, 1580. The common watch ticks, on the average, 17,160 times in an hour, or 150½ million times per year.

PAPER, but only of the brown and

coarse kinds, first made in England (at Dartford) 1588.

KNIVES first manufactured in England, 1563, which may be regarded as the institution of the cutlery and hardware trade of England, now a staple of the British empire, Sheffield and Birmingham being the grand marts.

THE TELESCOPE invented 1590 by Z. Jansen, a spectacle-maker of Middelburgh ; but it displayed objects inverted. Newton brought the instrument to perfection by constructing it to reflect, 1692.

COACHES first used in England by the gentry, in imitation of those of Italy, 1580. These were without glass, capable of being open or closed, and were drawn by two, sometimes by four, and even six horses, and occasionally by three abreast.

ENGLAND UNDER THE TUDORS.—The rule of the Tudors, beyond the great work of the reformation, was, on the whole, productive of good to the nation. Their unbounded use of the royal prerogative, whereby they founded a more absolute monarchy than any early king, ever surrounded by jealous barons, had been able to establish, served to give solidity to the councils of the state ; to keep down that spirit of faction which had caused so much bloodshed and such insecurity of property in the preceding reigns ; and to carry into effect, with the requisite promptitude, all measures which it was found necessary to take, either for offence or defence. Of all the Tudor sovereigns, Elizabeth was the most arbitrary. The power of parliament in her reign was a mere shadow. She scrupled not to forbid its interference with matters either of church or state ; and was accustomed to imprison such members as dared to disobey the injunction. Supplies she raised without its authority, by exacting loans and benevolences from the people, and by the sale of privileges of exclusive trade ; while she made laws, and those sometimes of the most oppressive and absurd kind,

by means of proclamations and royal decrees alone. Disliking the smell of woad, used by the dyers, she prohibited the cultivation of the plant; and, though herself so capricious in dress, as to appear each day in a different habit, she authorized officers to go about the streets, and break every gentleman's sword, and cut down every ruff, which respectively exceeded a defined length and depth. Commerce and navigation were encouraged by all the Tudor family, but especially by Elizabeth, who was highly sensible that the defence of her kingdom depended on its naval power; but with all the diligence of the latter to augment the number of ships of war, her whole fleet contained at best but 774 guns! The population of England in her reign was only 900,000; of whom 80,000 were soldiers, either acting as militia, or in the active services of war. The state of manufactures was low; and Elizabeth was the first female who obtained silk stockings: foreign wares had always a marked preference amongst the people. The art of painting began to be patronized, after the favour shown to Holbein by Henry VIII. As regards the muses, more poems worthy of preservation came forth in the reign of Elizabeth, especially at its close, (when the noblest productions appeared of which the English nation can boast, if we except the grand work of Milton, and which may be said to have revived the everywhere dormant flame of poesy,) than at any previous or any subsequent period of the history of literature. And the muses may be said only to have opened the door for those great ornaments of general learning, who appeared in the reign immediately sub-

sequent to that of Elizabeth. The drama assumed nearly its present form in the reign of Elizabeth; thus superseding the mysteries and moralities till then enacted by the monks in the churches on festival occasions. One of these mysteries was entitled, 'Candlemas; or, the Killing of the Children of Israel.' The houses in Elizabeth's time began to be ornamented with oaken panels, carved in grotesque fashion by Norman artists, of which numerous specimens are still to be seen. The rooms were not carpeted, but the floors were neatly joined without the aid of nails; while the fire was upon the hearth, commonly without dogs or other sort of grate. The walls of the best houses were only of wattling, plastered over with various materials; while the supporters of the roof were whole trees, denuded of their boughs in the rudest manner. Learning was patronized by all the Tudors on its revival; and Henry VIII., his three children, lady Jane Grey, and queen Catherine Parr, all figured as authors. The dress of the people during the time of the Tudors, especially in the reign of Elizabeth, was singular indeed, according to our present notions. The court of Henry VIII. all imitated his corpulent figure, by stuffing out their habiliments; in Edward's short reign, closer dresses, with yellow stockings, and caps instead of hats, were worn by the men; in Mary's time, the farthingale, or hooped petticoat, was introduced by the ladies from Spain; and Elizabeth having adopted the plaited ruff as the clothing of the neck, both sexes loyally imitated her example, and carried the fashion to an egregious excess.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER SELIM II.—He succeeded his father, Suleiman the Just, 1566, and in the next year concluded a truce for eight years with the emperor Maximilian II. He declared war against the Venetians, 1570, and his general, Mustafa, took

from them the island of Cyprus; but the oligarchy recovered it again, 1571, by a severe naval fight at Lepanto, in which Ali Pacha was slain, with 32,000 Turks. Selim's intemperate and effeminate life terminated by a fit of apoplexy, 1574; and his cho-

leric son, Morad III., succeeded. He caused (*more majorem*) five of his brothers to be strangled on the day he ascended the throne, and soon after began a war with the Persians, which, after several battles lost and won, was concluded by a peace, much to the advantage of Turkey. On one occasion, an ambassador from Poland having failed in respect to him, Morad had him cut in pieces, with all his retinue. In 1590, his army was defeated by the emperor Rodolph, with the loss of Mohammed, his nephew, and 10,000 slain. In 1592, Sinan, his general, marched into Hungary with the emperor's ambassador in chains; but this insult the Germans avenged by nearly annihilating the vast force he sent against them, 1593. Morad died, aged 42, 1595; and with him ended the Turkish attempts to conquer western Europe, where the art of war was so much better understood than among the Moslems. MOHAMMED III. had just succeeded to his father's throne, when Rodolph II. and the princes of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania, united against him, and deprived him of those fine tributary provinces; and the plague breaking out in an army of 85,000 Turks and Tartars that had entered Hungary, 1597, scarcely 8000 of that vast number escaped death. The sultan, notwithstanding these losses, wholly devoted himself to pleasure, leaving his mother and ministers to direct the state; and, upon hearing of the revolt of his Asiatic provinces, together with a mutiny of the Janizaries, he was seized with a fever, of which he died, aged 39, 1603.

THE POPEDOM.—PIUS IV. (Giovanni de Medici, not of the Florentine family) succeeded Paul IV., 1559. He behaved with great severity to the rebellious nephews of his predecessor, concluded the council of Trent 1563, and strongly urged the Christian princes to assail the Turks, who threatened a descent on Malta. He died, aged 67, 1566, and was succeeded by Michael Ghisleri, known as St. Pius V. Having been some time

inquisitor-general, and originally a monk of St. Dominic, he displayed his zeal for the faith by a persecution of the protestants; many of whom he caused to be burned. By his numerous fleet, he contributed to the victory of Lepanto, 1571, and died 1572. GREGORY XIII. was his successor, Ugo Buoncompagni, at 70 years of age. He was learned both in civil and canon law; and showed considerable zeal for the promotion of education, by establishing and endowing colleges at Rome, and in other towns. His reformation of the Julian calendar, called the New Style, has been gradually adopted by all the nations of Europe, except Russia and Greece. Gregory was naturally of a mild disposition; but being extremely zealous for the triumph of his Church, he allowed cardinal Lorraine to order thanksgivings to be offered up, when intelligence of the massacre of the Barthélémi was received. In 1584, he had the satisfaction of receiving an embassy from the Japanese, in whose country the Jesuits had made numerous proselytes; and he died, aged 83, 1585. SIXTUS V. (Felix Peretti), one of the most subtle and politic possessors of the chair of St. Peter, was next elected. He was of poor birth; and becoming a cordelier at ten, acquired the favour of his superiors by a rigid attention to monastic rules. As professor of divinity at Siena, he greatly distinguished himself by his sermons, and was made inquisitor of Venice. He, however, quarrelled with the senate, and was obliged to quit that city; and when rallied on account of his precipitate retreat, is reported to have replied, 'that having made a vow to be pope at Rome, he did not think he ought to stay to be hanged at Venice.' On arriving at Rome, he was speedily promoted to the generalship of the cordeliers, and made a cardinal. There have been many tales told by the enemies of Sixtus, such as that when he found the college would choose none but an infirm man to fill the

papal chair, he began using a stick, on which he continually leaned for support, and coughed terribly; and that, when some one paid him a compliment on the good health he enjoyed after his election, he replied, 'Do not be surprised: I was formerly stooping in search of the keys of Paradise; but now I have found them, I look up to heaven, having occasion for nothing more upon earth.' But these are merely the inventions of disappointed rivals. Never has there existed a man more exact or assiduous in the performance of the duties of his office, than Sixtus was in those of a secular prince: the severity with which he caused justice to be administered, rendered Rome and the ecclesiastical state both safe and flourishing. He was at incredible expense in adorning, not only Rome, but all the other cities in his territories. He caused a prodigious ancient obelisk, 72 feet high, to be dug up, and erected in the square of the Vatican, where he raised that noble library which has established his fame; and he caused a splendid chapel to be built in the church of St. Mary, with white marble. Finding that water was wanted on Mount Quirinal, he had it brought from a spring by an aqueduct at a vast cost; and he contrived that annual instantaneous illumination of St. Peter's, which to this day astonishes the visitors of the Capitol. He also erected a magnificent palace near St. John de Lateran, whose front is 340 feet in length. But though anxious for the outward and imposing splendour of 'the eternal city,' Sixtus was rigidly attentive to his duties as a prelate and private man; and of every night he passed a portion in severe study. He greatly admired Elizabeth of England, upheld piety and virtue, while he encouraged the sciences, and, notwithstanding the large sum he expended during the five years of his pontificate, left considerable wealth in the treasury of St. Angelo at his decease, which occurred in his 70th year, 1590. URBAN

VII. (Giovanni Castani), a man of great learning and integrity, was the successor of Sixtus; and the Romans being now accustomed to wholesome discipline, expressed great sorrow on seeing their new pope, from whom they had expected much, die of a sudden illness only 23 days after his election. GREGORY XIV. (Nicolo Sfondrato), cardinal of Cremona, was next chosen; and, during his brief pontificate of ten months, displayed great zeal for the French League against Henri IV. and the protestants. Dying 1591, he was succeeded by INNOCENT IX. (Giovanni Facchinetti of Bologna), celebrated for his virtues; but he died in the short space of two months, 1592, and was succeeded by CLEMENT VIII. (Ippolito Aldobrandini), a man of great learning and political sagacity. He laboured to make piety and knowledge flourish, condemned duelling, and induced Henri IV. publicly to declare himself a catholic; whereon his excommunication, pronounced by Gregory XIV., was taken off. He annexed by force the duchy of Ferrara to the papal state, after the death of Duke Alfonso II., disregarding the claims of the duke's cousin, Cesare d'Este, who, unable to resist him, retired to Modena. He published a new edition of the Vulgate, defined in a bull the lawful and unlawful rites of the Greek church, and fixed the cases in which confession and absolution might be made and given in writing. He patronised men of merit, raising Baronius, Bellarmine, and other persons of a superior order to the rank of cardinal, and died, aged 69, 1605.

SCOTLAND UNDER MARY STUART, &c.—A great change had taken place in Scotland in the interval between Mary's departure in infancy for Paris, and her return from that gay capital (a period of 18 years), at the age of 19, 1561. The old form of religion had then been supreme; and under the direction of Beatoun, the clergy had seemed far on the way to extirpate every seed of dissent and re-

form. The same causes, however, which gave strength to the ecclesiastics, gave strength also, though more slowly, to the great body of the people; and at length, after the repeated losses of Flodden, and Fala, and Solway Moss, and Pinkey (which, by the fall of nearly the whole lay nobility and leading men of the kingdom, brought all classes within the influence of public events), the energies, physical and moral, of the entire nation were drawn out, and, under the guidance of the reformer Knox, expended themselves with the fury of awakened indignation upon the whole fabric of the ancient faith. The work of destruction had just been completed, and the presbyterian government established on the ruins of the Roman catholic, when Mary returned to her native land. She knew little of all this; and had been taught in France to shrink at the avowal of protestant opinions. Her habits and sentiments were therefore utterly at variance with those of her subjects; and, nurtured in the lap of ease, she was wholly unprepared for the shock which was inevitably to result from her coming among them. Accordingly, on the first Sunday after her arrival, when she had commanded a solemn mass to be celebrated in the chapel of the palace, an uproar ensued, the servants of the chapel were insulted and abused, and had not some of the lay nobility of the protestant party interposed, the riot would have become general. On the next Sunday, Knox preached a thundering sermon against idolatry; and took occasion to say 'that a single mass was more to be feared than ten thousand armed men.' Upon this, Mary sent for the reformer; but the only result of that interview and subsequent ones, was to exhibit the parties more plainly at variance with each other. In none of his conferences with the queen did the ill-bred champion of presbytery pay the slightest homage either to her sex, or her high station. 'The powers that be are ordained of God,' formed no

article of Knox's creed. Mary's youth, however, her beauty, accomplishments, and affability, interested the majority in her favour; and as she had from the first continued the government in the hands of the protestants, the general peace remained unbroken. Various proposals of marriage had been made to Mary by this time from different quarters; but her affections fixing on her cousin, Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, she was united to him at Holyrood-house, 1565. So great was her popularity at the moment, that not a murmur was heard when she commanded her new husband to be proclaimed king of Scotland, unconstitutional as the act was regarded; though Knox, with his accustomed want of feeling, and disregard of his character as a Christian divine, preached openly against her union with a papist, and in a sermon in her presence observed, 'that God had set over them, for their offences, and their ingratitude, *boys and women.*' From the continued attacks of the reformer, whatever led to the manifestation of the queen's religious sentiments on any occasion, instantly dissolved the fascination which her other qualities had created; and it is in this way we may account for the assistance given to Darnley in the assassination of Rizzio, an attendant on Mary. Rizzio seems to have come in place of Chatelard, a French poet, who, having sailed in Mary's retinue from the continent, gained the queen's attention by his poetical effusions, and, becoming bold enough to make love to her, was held guilty of high treason, condemned, and executed. Rizzio, a Piedmontese, came to Edinburgh in the train of the ambassador from Savoy, a year or so before Chatelard's death. He was skilled in music, had a polished and ready wit, and wrote French and Italian with ease. His first employment at court was in his character of a musician; but Mary soon advanced him to be her French secretary; and in this situation he was conceived to

possess an influence over her, which was equally hateful to Darnley and the reformers, though on very different grounds. Both therefore concurred in his destruction; and he was assassinated accordingly, 1566. Darnley afterwards disclaimed all concern in the conspiracy, though it was plain the queen did not believe, and could not forgive him; and possessing as he did few qualities to secure her regard, her growing contempt of him terminated in disgust. In the mean time the earl of Bothwell was rapidly advancing in the queen's favour; and at length no business was concluded, no grace bestowed, without his assent and participation. At this juncture Mary boreason to Darnley, eventually our James I.; soon after which Darnley was seized with small-pox at Glasgow, but on his recovery returned with the queen to Edinburgh, where he took up his residence, not in the palace of Holyrood, as heretofore, but in the Kirk of Field, a detached mansion, standing in a solitary part of the town. Ten days after, this house was blown up by gunpowder, and Darnley and his servants buried in the ruins, Feb. 1567. Whether Mary knew of the intended murder is not certain, and different views of the circumstances have been taken by different historians: the actual author of the horrid deed was Bothwell, and he was brought before the privy council for the crime. From the shortness of the notice, Lennox, his accuser, did not appear; the trial nevertheless proceeded; and without a single witness being examined, the earl was acquitted. He was upon this not only continued in all his employments, but actually attained the end he had in view when he perpetrated the foul act. This was no other than to marry the queen himself, which he did in three months after, having in the interval carried her off a prisoner to his castle of Dunbar, and obtained a process of divorce against the lady Bothwell, his wife, on the ground of consanguinity. Before the union, Mary had

created Bothwell duke of Orkney; and the marriage itself was solemnized at Holyrood-house by Adam Bothwell, bishop of Orkney, the earl's kinsman, according to both the Romish and protestant forms. Public indignation could no longer be restrained; and the nobles rising against Bothwell and Mary, they fled before an armed and indignant people from fortress to fortress. At length, after they had collected some followers, a pitched battle near Carberry-hill was about to ensue, June 15, 1567, when Mary abandoned Bothwell, (who fled beyond seas), and threw herself on the mercy of her subjects, who conducted her first to Edinburgh, and thence to the castle of Lochleven; where, as she still persisted to regard Bothwell as her husband, it was determined she should abdicate in favour of her son James. Instruments to that effect were accordingly prepared, and she was constrained to affix her signature to them; upon which the prince was crowned at Stirling, 29th July, 1567, as JAMES VI., when little more than a year old.

The circumstances of the time (being that of the final struggle in Scotland between the two great interests of the old and the new religion, which, besides their intrinsic importance, were respectively identified with the French and the English alliance,) rendered the minority of James a season of perpetual disorder. Knox acted as usual a conspicuous part. He preached the coronation sermon of the infant king, when Murray was made regent; and the last contest in which he engaged was with his own followers, who desired the restoration of episcopacy, but whose zeal for that object he contrived entirely to extinguish. He died, aged 67, 1572, and his funeral was attended by Morton (that day chosen regent) and several other lords. Strikingly indeed does the fierce intolerance of this reformer contrast with the mild dignity of St. Paul, ardent as that apostle was for making converts; and with all Knox's

acknowledged talents, how awfully unchristian—as clearly so as pope Gregory's thanksgiving for the Barthélemi—was his defence of the cowardly assassination of Beaton! During the regencies of the earls of Murray, Lennox, Mar, and Morton (1567—1578), the education of the young prince was prosecuted under the superintendence of the worthy earl of Mar in Stirling Castle, by George Buchanan, and other eminent scholars; but upon the death of Mar, his brother, Alexander Erskine, induced the nobles to call on the prince, young as he was (14), to take the rule into his own hands, which he accordingly did 1578, and Morton was compelled to resign the regency. The new government, however, soon became unpopular, on account of its favour towards persons of the old faith; and this in a few weeks opened a way for Morton to resume nearly all his former authority. Into the hands of this person, (undoubtedly one of the chief actors in the tragedy of his father's murder,) the young prince now fell; but his power was not long in being undermined, chiefly by the intrigues of two individuals, who seem to have first made their appearance at the Scottish court 1579, and immediately to have become the objects of the unbounded fondness of the young king. These were Esmé Stuart, of the house of Lennox, whom James created duke of Lennox, and captain James Stuart, son of lord Ochiltree. In Dec. 1580, the mind of the king having been previously prepared for what was to be done, captain Stuart entered the council-chamber, and accused Morton of having been accessory to the murder of king Henry. The earl was immediately committed to prison, brought to trial, condemned, and executed at Edinburgh. Lennox and Stuart (the latter made earl of Arran) were now the rulers of the kingdom; and they exercised their power with unmeasurable insolence. At length a party of the nobles, including the earls of Mar and Gowrie, concerted a scheme for seizing the king's person,

which they carried into effect 12th August, 1582, at Gowrie's castle of Ruthven in Perthshire; whence the enterprise is known in Scottish history as the 'Raid of Ruthven.' Upon this revolution, Arran was thrown into confinement, Lennox was ordered to leave the kingdom, and soon after died in France, and James himself remained a captive in the hands of the conspirators. These proceedings received the approval of a convention of the estates, as well as the secret thanks of Elizabeth of England; the latter of whom, in the overthrow of the government of Morton, and the ascendancy of Lennox and Arran, had seen her whole policy with regard to the northern kingdom thwarted. James had remained in a state of restraint ten months, when, having been permitted to go from Falkland to St. Andrews, 1583, he contrived to throw himself into the castle there, and to maintain his position till his enemies, finding themselves outnumbered by those who flocked to his assistance, gave up the contest. Once more at liberty, he recalled the infamous Arran, who obtained an act declaring all concerned in the Raid of Ruthven traitors; whereon, although the rest escaped, Gowrie was seized and summarily executed. A strict alliance, through Arran, was now formed with Elizabeth; who agreed to allow James a pension of 5000*l.*, but soon after employed lord Gray's son, called 'the Master of Gray,' to undermine the influence of Arran. With her connivance, the lords who had been banished on account of the Raid entered Scotland with 10,000 men, 1585, and driving Arran from the royal presence, compelled the confiscation of his estates.

We must now return to queen Mary. On the escape of Bothwell from the unfought field of Carberry Hill, 1567, to which measure he was prompted by Mary, that unhappy queen surrendered herself to the laird of Grange; and, amid the insults of the lower classes, was conducted to Edinburgh. The citizens of that capital, however, seeming to

incline to her cause, the insurgent lords removed her, in disguised apparel, to the castle of Lochleven, which stands on a little island in the lake of that name, June 16. Bothwell, to gain a livelihood, betook himself to piracy in the northern seas; and being captured by the Danes, died in their dungeon of Malmay, 1576. Meanwhile Mary reaped the full consequences of his guilt and of her own infatuated attachment to him. She was imprisoned in a rude and inconvenient tower, on a small islet, where there was scarcely room to walk 50 yards; and not even the intercession of queen Elizabeth, who seems for the moment to have been alarmed at the successful insurrection of subjects against their sovereign, could procure any mitigation of her captivity. The brutality of lord Lindsay, one of the confederate peers, who severely bruised the captive queen's arm by squeezing it with his iron glove, when urging her to sign the deed by which she relinquished the crown to her son, has been the mournful theme of many a Scottish historian. But though deserted by her own brother, Murray, who, on accepting the regency of Scotland, acknowledged himself her enemy, Mary found a friend in George Douglas, the brother of her gaoler. Sir William Douglas of Lochleven, the half-brother of Murray, and consequently a relative of Mary, was resolutely bent on being faithful to the trust reposed in him; but his brother George, though expelled the island on account of the interest he took in the queen's cause, engaged his cousin, called 'little Douglas,' a boy of 16 (who remained at the castle), to effect her escape. Accordingly, on May 2, 1568, little William Douglas contrived to steal the keys of the castle, while the family were at supper. He let Mary and her attendant out of the tower when all had gone to rest, locked the gates to prevent pursuit, placed the queen and her waiting-woman in a skiff, and rowed them to the shore, throwing the keys of the castle into the lake. Lord Seaton

and a party of the Hamiltons being in waiting at the landing-place with horses, the queen mounted, and hurried off to Niddry in West Lothian; from which place she went next day to Hamilton. The news spread like lightning throughout the country; the people remembered Mary's gentleness, grace, beauty, and misfortunes; and if they reflected on her errors, they thought they had been punished with sufficient severity. In a week after her emancipation, she was at the head of a powerful confederacy, by which nine earls, nine bishops, eighteen lords, and many gentlemen of high rank, engaged to defend her person, and restore her power. This was, however, but a gleam of success. The queen purposed to place her person in security in the castle of Dumbarton; and her army, under the earl of Argyle, resolved to carry her thither in a species of triumph. The regent was lying at Glasgow with very inferior forces; but, with confidence in his own military skill, and in the talents of Morton, he determined to meet Argyle's party on its march, and give it battle. On May 18th, 1568, Murray having occupied the village of Langside, the Hamiltons and other conductors of Mary rushed forth with ill-considered valour, to dispute the pass. They fought, however, with obstinacy, after the Scottish manner; that is, they pressed on each other front to front, each fixing his spear in his opponent's target, and then endeavouring to bear him down, as two bulls do when they encounter. Morton decided the battle by attacking the flank of the Hamiltons while their column was closely engaged in front. The measure was successful, and the queen's army was completely routed. Mary beheld this final and fatal defeat from a castle called Crookstane, about four miles from Paisley; where she and Darnley had spent some happy days after their marriage, and which, therefore, must have been the scene of bitter recollections. It was soon evident that there was no

resource but flight ; and, escorted by lord Herries and a few faithful followers, she rode 60 miles without stopping to the abbey of Dundrennan, in Galloway. From this place she had the means of retreating either to France or England, as she should ultimately determine. In France she was sure to have been well received ; but England afforded a nearer, and, as she thought, an equally safe place of refuge. Her attendants, however, deemed otherwise ; but, in spite of their entreaties, she crossed the Solway, and delivered herself up to a gentleman named Lowther, the English deputy-warden. Much surprised at the incident, he sent to inform queen Elizabeth ; and receiving the Scottish queen with as much state as he had the means of showing, he lodged her in Carlisle Castle. Elizabeth, great as she was upon some occasions, acted in the present emergency from mean and altogether unworthy motives. In the fugitive who implored her protection, she only saw a princess who possessed a right of succession to the crown of England, which, by the catholic part of her subjects at least, was held superior to her own. She remembered that Mary had been led to assume the arms and titles of the English monarchy ; that she had been long her rival in accomplishments ; and she certainly did not forget that she was her superior in youth and beauty. In a word, Elizabeth regarded her unhappy cousin as an enemy, over whom circumstances had given her power ; and she accordingly determined upon reducing her to the condition of a captive. In pursuance of the line of conduct to which this train of reasoning led, she ordered Mary to be removed from the Scottish border to Bolton castle, in Yorkshire ; and under the pretence of doing her justice, appointed commissioners to inquire into the cause of Darnley's death, 'that she might clear her beloved sister from the aspersions cast upon her character.' The commission met at York, 1568, the regent Murray appearing as the

accuser of his sister, benefactress, and sovereign—the charge, that of *murder* ; and at the end of five months, Elizabeth informed both parties that the earl had proved nothing of the criminal charges which he had brought against the queen of Scots. She was, therefore, she said, determined to leave the affairs of Scotland as she had found them. To have treated both parties impartially, Elizabeth ought hereupon to have restored Mary to liberty : she however retained her in that captivity which was only to end with her life ; while Murray returned to Scotland to be laden with her favours. But the career of that heartless nobleman was brief ; for Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh, whose estates had been confiscated by the regent for his adherence to his sister's cause, shot him as he passed through Linlithgow, 1570, and escaped to the continent. During the regency of Murray's successor, Lennox, the party of Mary gained ground ; but upon his death, 1572, the earl of Morton became regent, and her cause declined. The castle of Edinburgh, Mary's last hope, defended by the gallant Kirkaldy of Grange, fell to Elizabeth's general, Sir William Drury, 1573 ; Kirkaldy and his brother were publicly executed ; and a termination being thus put to the civil war, Morton was in complete possession of power in Scotland. It however became, after a course of years, the lot of, that talented but faulty ruler to die as he had made others die ; for, being accused, as has already been shown, by James Stuart, of having been instrumental to the death of Darnley, he was, with the king's consent, decapitated by a machine of his own invention, called 'The Maiden,' 1580. But to return to the captive Mary. Always demanding her liberty, and always having the demand evaded, she was transported from castle to castle, and placed under the charge of various keepers ; who incurred Elizabeth's most severe resentment when they manifested any of that attention to

soften the rigours of captivity, which mere courtesy and compassion for fallen greatness prompted. But a bull of pope Pius V., 1571, which excommunicated Elizabeth, having reminded the English catholics of Mary's alleged superior claim to the kingdom of England, various plots were entered into to dethrone Elizabeth. As fast as one of these conspiracies was crushed, another seemed to arise : and as the catholics were promised powerful assistance from the king of Spain, the danger appeared every day more imminent. Whether Mary herself fostered the design of the queen's enemies or not, she was soon regarded by the English government as its *primum mobile* ; and a pretext was found for proceeding against her, when Anthony Babington, a young gentleman of fortune, and a zealous catholic, had been detected in laying plans for Elizabeth's assassination, and the release of Mary, 1585. The queen of Scots having been removed to Fotheringay Castle, 40 commissioners, consisting of Elizabeth's most distinguished statesmen and nobility, proceeded to try her for her alleged accession to Babington's conspiracy, in the great hall of her place of imprisonment, Oct. 1586. She was speedily found guilty ; and in three months after that decision, the earls of Shrewsbury and Kent arrived, (Feb. 7, 1587), and, on being introduced to her, told her to prepare for death at eight on the ensuing morning. She expressed surprise rather than terror at the intelligence ; and having declared that death would be most welcome to her, requested her confessor might attend her without delay. With much want of feeling, this was denied her ; whereupon, with calmness, she ordered supper to be prepared, observing that it was necessary to take sustenance, lest a failure of the body should affect her mind on the morrow. Her attendants, during the repast, could not help weeping when they reflected upon the awful situation of their mistress ; but at the end of it, she cheerfully re-

quested each of them to take wine with her, which they did upon their knees. She then asked their pardon for all her offences towards them ; while they, in return, amidst a plentiful effusion of tears, solicited her forgiveness in like manner. Having perused her will, and distributed portions of her jewels among those about her person, she went to bed, slept calmly for some hours, and then rose to perform by herself the last offices of religion, administering to herself the consecrated host with which pope Pius had furnished her, in case she should be denied the assistance of a priest. Towards morning, she dressed herself in a rich habit of silk and velvet ; and when the sheriff announced to her that the hour was come, she replied that she was ready, and followed him, leaning on two of the soldiers. In passing through the hall, the two earls and other officers received her ; and some minutes were occupied in the painful farewell she was compelled to take of her steward, Sir Andrew Melvil, who threw himself on his knees in her way, wringing his hands, and weeping bitterly. A few of her servants were, after a great deal of solicitation, permitted to be with her to the last. She was not at all affected when, upon entering the room allotted for her death, she saw the executioners, the black hangings, and the fatal axe ; but she was moved with indignation when the dean of Peterborough endeavoured to make her abjure the errors of her faith, and said to him with great earnestness, ' I was born in this religion, I have lived in it, and in it I will die ! ' The earl of Kent reproved her for keeping a crucifix in her hand : she meekly upbraided him, and proceeded to unrobe. Her servants, on seeing her ready to lay her head upon the block, burst into tears and convulsive sobbings ; but she put her finger to her lips, to enjoin their silence. Having desired one of them to cover her eyes with a handkerchief, she knelt down ; and, at two strokes, her head was severed from her body.

Thus died queen Mary, aged 44, after a captivity of 18 years. Elizabeth, in the same spirit of hypocrisy which had characterised all her proceedings towards her cousin, no sooner ascertained that the deed was done, than she hastened to deny her share in it. She pretended that Davison, her secretary, had acted positively against her command in laying the warrant before the privy council; that she might seem the more serious in her charge, she caused him to be fined in a large sum of money, and deprived of his offices; and she sent a special ambassador to king James, to apologize for the unhappy *accident*, as she chose to designate the deliberate judicial murder of his mother!

Though James remonstrated between the condemnation and execution of his parent, and took steps to obtain the aid of France and other foreign courts, he prudently remembered his English pension, and allowed himself to be soothed by Elizabeth's hollow excuses. His marriage with Anne, daughter of Frederick II. of Denmark, 1589; the daring seizure of his person by Francis Stuart, earl of Bothwell, on the plea of protecting him from evil ministers, 1593, with the ultimate expulsion of Bothwell from the kingdom; and the riots occasioned by the presbyterian party, on account of James's inclination towards the ancient faith (presbytery having been established as the national form of religion by the parliament, 1592), which ended in the king's restoration of episcopacy, 1598; were the chief matters of interest till the celebrated 'Gowrie Conspiracy,' 1600. The king was upon a hunting excursion, when he was invited by the brother of Ruthven, earl of Gowrie, to the earl's house at Perth. Here he was led to a remote chamber, on pretence of having a secret communicated to him; when he found a man in complete armour, who put a dagger to his breast, and threatened him with immediate death, without assigning any cause for the deed. His attendants becoming roused by his

cries, entered, and slew both the armed man and the earl's brother; when it was discovered that the former was the earl himself. The passage is one of the darkest in history; and after the expenditure of much ingenuity in the attempt to clear it up, no explanation, satisfactory at all points, has yet been given. In the last years of his residence in Scotland, James was much occupied in taking measures for securing his succession to the English throne; an object which, from the capricious temper of Elizabeth, remained of doubtful attainment up to the very moment of its accomplishment. At length intelligence was brought of the death of the queen, and of her unchanged mind as respected his succession; and on the 5th of April, 1603, he set out from Edinburgh to receive that second crown, which was to bring a double portion of woe upon his hapless descendants.

FRANCE UNDER FRANCIS II.—Francis II., son of Henri II. and Catherine de Medici, married the unfortunate Mary Stuart, and in a year after, succeeded his father on the throne, 1559, at the age of 16. The duke of Guise and the cardinal of Lorraine, his brother, uncles of the young queen, had been invested with the government by Henri; a measure which raised up against them Antoine king of Navarre, and Louis his brother, prince of Condé, both princes of the blood. Those princes, indignant at seeing the state ruled by two strangers, engaged the French protestants (calvinists, afterwards called Huguenots), on their side, while the Guises, on the other hand, brought over the catholics to their interests. Thus originated those terrible civil disturbances which desolated France under the following reigns. The partisans of the prince of Condé formed, in 1560, 'the conspiracy of Amboise,' so called because they assembled round that city, to carry off the king, and massacre the Guises, who had removed to Amboise from Paris, on receiving secret information of a de-

sign being on foot to seize the royal person. The insurgent party, however, was overcome, numerous executions followed, and the edict of Ramorantin was issued by the king, which constituted the bishops judges of heresy, took the cognizance of this offence from the parliament, and deprived the calvinists of the privilege of holding religious assemblies. A recent edict of Henri had also declared the same party punishable by death; but when admiral Coligni had presented a memorial in their favour, it was resolved to leave them in peace, till a national council should be assembled. Accordingly, in 1560, Francis called one at Orleans; when the prince of Condé, on his arrival thereat, was seized, and condemned to lose his head for the conspiracy of Amboise. The sentence, however, was not executed, on account of the king's death, occasioned by an imposthume in the ear (after a reign of only 17 months), December 15. CHARLES IX., his brother, then only 10, succeeded; and the government was administered by his mother, Catherine de Medici, and Antoine de Bourbon, king of Navarre. The prince of Condé was now released; and so much strength did the Huguenot party acquire by the circumstance, that the constable Montmorenci and the duke of Guise, who had before been rivals, were reconciled, out of alarm at the growing influence of the calvinists, and formed, with the marshal St. André, a coalition, to which their opponents gave the name of 'the Triumvirate.' An edict prohibiting the preaching of the reformed opinions, on pain of exile, having been issued, 1561, the Huguenots took up arms; and their leaders having demanded a public conference with the catholics, the celebrated 'colloquy of Poissy' was the result, wherein Theodore Beza defended the cause of the reformed, and the cardinal of Lorraine that of the catholic church, before the king, the princes of the blood, and a number of nobles and dignified ecclesiastics. The disputants were tenacious of their opi-

nions, and remained unconverted; but the conference induced the king of Navarre to abandon the reformers, and reunite with the Guises. The queen-mother, however, jealous of a reconciliation which would so much diminish her influence, sought the favour of the Huguenots; and procured an edict which allowed them the exercise of their religion out of the towns. The peace thus established was of short continuance; and a quarrel between some domestics of the duke of Guise and a congregation of protestants at Vassy in Champagne, led to the massacre of the latter, and became the signal for hostilities to begin. While the protestants had possession of all the south and west of France, the catholics had on their side the king and the court, the regular army, the capital, the provinces of the north and east, the talent of the Guises, and the support of Philip II. of Spain. The catholics took Rouen 1562, but lost their general the king of Navarre, and marshal St. André; and though they captured the prince de Condé, they were glad to exchange him for the constable Montmorenci, who had been made prisoner by the protestants. In 1563, the assassination of the duke of Guise, while besieging Orleans, by Poltrot, a protestant, brought on a peace; but in 1567 war was renewed by an attempt on the part of Condé and Coligni to seize the king's person. In this second religious contest, Catherine was hostile to the Huguenots, Montmorenci fell at St. Denis, and peace again ensued 1568. Neither party, however, had confidence in the other; and hostilities again commencing, the prince of Condé was taken prisoner at Angoumois by the king's brother, the duke of Anjou (afterwards Henri III.), 1569, and shot in cold blood after the battle. Henri de Bourbon (afterwards Henri IV.) was now recognized as head of the protestant party; but he was yet only a youth of 16, and the command therefore remained in the hands of Coligni, who, after some

trifling successes, obtained a peace, 1570, on terms highly favourable to his party. In the following year, the protestants scrupled not to express their suspicions of the sincerity of the catholic party; and Charles, to pacify them, proposed the union of Henri de Bourbon, now king of Navarre, their leader, with Margaret his sister. The marriage therefore took place Aug. 18, 1572, in the presence of all the leaders of the Huguenot party, who had been invited to the ceremony, as well as in that of the court; and festivities were planned for many succeeding days. On the 22nd, however, Coligni, in quitting the Louvre, was wounded by firearms from a house; and on the eve of the 24th, St. Bartholomew's day, was perpetrated that horrible massacre described among the foreign events of the reign. The king of Navarre was forced to abjure his religion to save his life; and when the event was communicated to the English court by the French ambassador, deep mourning was ordered by Elizabeth to be worn by all who resorted to her presence. This dreadful tragedy only served to irritate such calvinists as were fortunate enough to escape; and refusing, therefore, to deliver up the places of safety that had been granted them, the duke of Anjou (afterwards Henri III.) lost almost his whole army in an attempt to deprive them of Rochelle, 1573. Hearing at that juncture that he had been elected king of Poland, the duke retired from the place to take possession of its crown; and he returned not to France till after the death of his brother Charles IX., who expired at Vincennes, aged 24, 1574. The occasion of Charles's death was (it is affirmed) a bloody sweat, his whole body being found bathed therein, though without wound or hæmorrhage of any sort; and it was of course regarded as a visitation for his concern in the terrible Barthélemi. The duke of Anjou (who had been a suitor of our Elizabeth), having resigned the crown of Poland, succeeded his brother as

HENRI III., and commenced a very stormy reign. He declared war against the calvinists, 1576, but gave them a peace at Nerac, 1580; and so totally opposed were all his plans, guided as he was by unworthy favourites, to the settlement of the religious disputes then raging in his country, that three distinct factions were soon seen, of which by far the weakest was that of the king. The war which ensued was called that 'of the three Henris,' and its origin was as follows. The king's only brother, the duke of Alençon, having died, 1584, Henri, king of Navarre, leader of the protestants, became presumptive heir of the French crown; whereon the League party took up arms under Henri duke of Guise, against the Huguenots under Henri of Navarre, while Henri III., jealous of each party, attempted to bring both to obedience. The whole kingdom was at length involved in civil contest, 1587. In that year was formed the faction of The Sixteen, which undertook to deprive the king of his crown and liberty. The king of Navarre set out the same year from Berne, in order to join the Germans and Swiss, who were marching to reinforce his army, when Annas, duke de Joyeuse, endeavoured to prevent their passage, but was defeated at the battle of Coutras. Navarre, instead of improving this victory, returned to Berne; and the Germans and Swiss, who by this advantage had been drawn into France, were defeated by the duke of Guise at Vimori and Anneau. Henri III., driven to extremities by the Sixteen and the duke of Guise's party, turned his army upon Paris, 1588, (then in Guise's interest,) and attempted to seize the main entrance to the streets; but the people took the alarm, barricaded themselves, (a feat at which the Parisians have ever been expert,) and drove out his troops. The citizens thereupon declared Guise their master; and the king retreating to Rouen, his mother Catherine made him there sign a disgraceful edict of re-union with his rebellious subject. Henri soon perceived the fault he had

committed ; and assembling the states of Blois, caused the duke of Guise and his brother, the cardinal, to be assassinated. On the news of these massacres, the leaguers of Paris committed many indignities against the king's person, and obliged the duke of Mayenne to revenge the death of his brother ; for which purpose they forced him to take the office of lieutenant-general of France. Henri, on this, had recourse, to the most liberal of his opponents, the king of Navarre ; and the latter, with an army of protestants, raised the siege of Tours, in which the king had been besieged by the duke of Mayenne. The two kings then invested Paris with 30,000 men ; but while Henri III. was waiting the event at St. Cloud, Jacques Clement, a fanatical Dominican monk, inflamed by the declamations of the leaguers, stabbed him in the midst of his courtiers. The nobles instantly slew the assassin with their swords ; but Henri died of his wound on the following day, Aug. 2, 1589, aged 39. The king of Navarre, descended in a direct line from Louis IX., had been named his successor by the dying Henri III. ; and assumed the title of HENRI IV. As the head of the calvinists, he was opposed by at least one half of the kingdom, which obeyed the duke of Mayenne ; and he was compelled to abandon the siege of Paris. Soon after, however, he gained the battles of Arques and Ivry against Mayenne ; and having received some reinforcements from Elizabeth of England, he pursued the war with renewed vigour. In 1593 he began negotiations with several of the leaders of the League ; and as a preliminary condition of their submission, he was induced, by the advice of his minister, Sully, to make a public profession of the catholic faith at St. Denis. In 1594 Paris opened its gates to him, Rouen and other cities followed the example, Charles, duke of Guise, made his submission, and the pope acknowledged him. In 1596 the duke of Mayenne submitted ; and in 1598 he saw all France, nine years after his

assumption of the crown, submit to his authority. The peace of Vervins, 1598, put an end to the interference of Spain in the affairs of France ; and at the same moment, to give the utmost possible advantage to the protestants, the edict of Nantes was published by Henri. That ordinance would have effected all that was required, had its provisions been honestly and fully carried into effect, and had not the king's intentions been frustrated by the intolerance of the different parliaments and courts of justice. Henri divorced his wife Margaret de Valois, 1599, and, upon the death of Gabrielle d'Estelle, (a beautiful and accomplished woman, the king's marriage with whom had been opposed by Sully, on account of her stained character,) espoused Mary de Medici, 1601 ; but the match was by no means productive of happiness. Mary, reposing her confidence in an Italian named Concini, and his wife Leonora Galigai, listened to every tale they studiously repeated against the private character of the monarch ; and her intrigues with the various political parties gave Henri great disturbance. Nevertheless the king became deservedly popular by his constant sympathy with the humble classes, who had been treated almost as inferior beings by his predecessors ; and so opposed was he to all plans of persecution, and even of severity, that he used constantly to remind his advisers 'a spoonful of honey would catch more flies than a whole hog'shead of vinegar.' His life, notwithstanding the esteem in which he was held, was often attempted, and at length fatally. Constant conspiracies were set on foot by the Huguenots, under the duke de Bouillon and others ; and the catholics, on the other hand, stirred up frequent mischief. Marshal de Biron was beheaded for a traitorous correspondence with Spain, 1602 ; and Austria having dictated laws to Europe for some time, Henri, to draw off the people from domestic differences, prepared to march into Germany, and if possible crush the in-

fluence of the emperor. Nothing impeded his setting off but the ceremonial of the queen's coronation; on the morning of which day, May 13th, 1610, he observed to his friend Bassompierre, that he could not help thinking his death was at hand. He was observed to be thoughtful and melancholy amid the gorgeous display of that day; and he took especial offence at what he regarded the want of respect shown to religion by the Spanish ambassador, who sat with his hat on. 'Does he remember,' said he angrily to those about him, 'that Jesus Christ is present?' The next day the king went to see Sully, who was ill; and his coach being obliged to stop in a narrow street, a man named Ravaillac sprung at the moment upon the wheel, and plunged a dagger into his side. The king instantly expired; and though the assassin, who was a catholic, was racked and executed, he would not assign any reason for the deed. Henri, usually styled 'le Grand,' was in his 58th year.

SWEDEN UNDER ERIC XIV., &c.—ERIC XIV. succeeded his father, Gustavus Vasa, 1560, but had neither the talent nor prudence of his illustrious parent. He created the first nobility known in Sweden; but soon quarrelled with the new order, by passing acts which they thought derogatory to their honour and dignity. His whole reign was disturbed by wars with Denmark, and disputes with his own subjects; and at length falling into insanity, he was deposed, and his brother placed on the throne, 1568, as JOHN III. Sweden now became a scene of discord, through the religious quarrels of the regal family, and an ill-managed war with the Muscovites. At length tranquillity was restored; and Sigismund, the son of John, was advanced to the throne of Poland, 1587, on the understanding that the two nations should become one in interests, and that Sigismund should have possession of both crowns after his father's decease. That event happened, 1592; and as SIGISMUND

was at a distance, all was confusion again in Sweden. The treasury was plundered; a rumour spread that the new king purposed the extirpation of protestantism; and when Sigismund arrived, attended by Malaspina the pope's nuncio, dissatisfaction was expressed in every quarter. A plan was thereupon laid to raise duke Charles, the king's uncle, to the throne; but on receiving intelligence of the design, the king directed a Polish force to harass the frontiers of Sweden, where it committed terrible ravages. In 1595, the king having departed on a visit to Poland, great disturbances began, and continued till 1604; when an universal rising of the Swedes ensued, Sigismund was deposed, and his uncle declared sovereign, with the title of Charles IX.

DENMARK AND NORWAY UNDER FREDERICK II., &c.—FREDERICK II. succeeded his father, Christiern III., 1559, and soon after his accession joined his brother, the duke of Holstein, in subduing the revolted inhabitants of Ditmarsh. In 1563 he commenced a war with Eric of Sweden, which was carried on with a cruel devastation of the two kingdoms; till Eric was deposed by his own subjects, 1568. In 1570 a treaty, advantageous to Denmark, was concluded with the Swedes; and from that time Frederick gave all his care to the promotion of the happiness of his subjects. He enlarged the university of Copenhagen; patronised learned men, among whom was Tycho Brahe; was highly respected by neighbouring princes; received the order of the garter from Elizabeth; and concluded a treaty with James VI. of Scotland, for the marriage of his daughter with that king. A pleasing instance is given of his practical application of the old maxim, 'Otiare quò labores.' For a due relaxation of his mind after close application to state business, he used to enter familiarly into amusements with his courtiers, his signal to commence being, 'Come on friends, let us play, since the king is

absent ;' and when he thought it proper time to desist, he would put on a grave countenance, and exclaim, ' Let us leave off—the king is returned.' This amiable prince dying, aged 54, 1588, was succeeded by his son CHRISTIERN IV. ; who being the brother of the queen of our James I., was received, on coming to England, 1606, with all possible magnificence, and in 1614 renewed his visit. He made war on the Swedes, was chosen head of the protestant league against the emperor, 1625, for the re-establishment of the elector-palatine, and was the first Danish king who sent a fleet to the East Indies ; his ships returning laden with spices from the isle of Ceylon. Christiern died, aged 71, 1648.

PORTUGAL UNDER SEBASTIAN, &c. —After the death of João III., 1557, the administration remained in the hands of the queen, in behalf of Sebastian, her grandson, the son of Joao, then an infant of three years. The Moors, supposing that under a minority they might be able to dispossess the Christians of the places they held in Barbary, laid close siege to Masagran ; but the queen-regent promised such rewards to those who distinguished themselves, that the Moslims, though they brought 80,000 men into the field, were obliged to abandon the enterprise. This was at first regarded as a high instance of the queen's capacity and wisdom ; but in a short time, the natural aversion which the Portuguese had to the government of women, together with the prejudice which prevailed against her country (Castile), appeared so plainly, that, of her own accord, she resigned her authority to cardinal Don Henry, her son, under whom affairs proceeded quietly to the close of the minority. When Sebastian had reached to man's-estate, his desire was to distinguish himself against the infidels ; and crossing to Africa, 1576, he, after risking the lives of himself and a few hundred picked soldiers and courtiers, returned, without effecting any thing, to Lisbon. The

attempt, however, had served to inflame him with the desire of a second crusade ; and he was highly delighted with a change of affairs, which afforded him at the moment a pretence for war. Muly Hamed, amir of Fez and Marocco, had been dispossessed of his dominions by his uncle, Muly Moloch. On hearing of the transaction, Sebastian sent to Hamed, offering him the service of such Portuguese troops as were in Africa, to reinstate him ; but the boon was rejected by the Moor with contempt, until Philip II. of Spain had been appealed to in vain for aid. Hamed then solicited, in the most submissive terms, the assistance he had despised ; and though Philip, and all the best advisers of Sebastian, laboured to dissuade him from the enterprise, that king, convinced that he should eclipse all his predecessors in glory, set sail, 1577, for Africa, with 1000 ships. In the battle which ensued, Hamed was drowned ; and Moloch, who commanded his own troops, though in an ill state of health, fell from his horse, and in a few moments after expired. The Moors, however, had the best of the contest, and actually surrounded the whole Portuguese force ; killing Sebastian while they were contending whose prisoner he should be, and either putting to death, or carrying into slavery, the flower of his nobility. Al Hamed, the brother of Muley Moloch, was proclaimed amir by the Moors immediately after the battle ; and the new sovereign having commanded a search to be made for Sebastian's body, the king's valet-de-chambre brought into his presence a corpse, which he said was that of his master, but so disfigured with wounds, that it could not well be known. This body, however, was sent to Philip of Spain, who interred it at Belem with all possible solemnity. The Portuguese, notwithstanding this ceremonial, would not believe that their monarch had died, and continually persisted in looking for his return ; a species of credulity which gave rise to many

pretenders, and all Europe, for 20 years, was pestered by the claims of pseudo-Sebastians. The decline of Portugal dates from the disaster of Sebastian. HENRY I. succeeded his unfortunate brother 1578, but found himself in an unenviable situation; the young nobility having been exterminated, or carried into slavery in Africa, and the kingdom exhausted of men, money, and reputation. After a brief reign, Don Henry died, 1580; and a violent dispute for the succession commenced at his decease. The prince of Parma, the duchess of Braganza, and Philip II. of Spain, respectively urged their right; but the power of Philip quickly decided the contest in his favour. He found his schemes facilitated by the treachery of the committee of regency, the members of which, under pretence of inspecting the magazines, took out the powder, and supplied its place with sand; they dissolved the states as soon as they discovered them bent on maintaining the freedom of the nation; and, under a show of confidence, sent off to distant places such of the nobility as they suspected. Philip, finding every thing in his favour, sent the duke of Alva with 20,000 men into Portugal; but the people, on perceiving how they had been betrayed, instantly declared Don Antonio, prior of Crato, their sovereign. That personage, however, was obliged to flee; and Philip, on being acknowledged king, entered Lisbon in great pomp, and took an oath to defend the privileges of Portugal, and to allow none but its own natives to hold office in the state under himself. But all his concessions could not satisfy his new subjects; and his severity to those who had favoured the cause of Antonio rendered him extremely unpopular. That prince, having obtained from the French a fleet of 60 sail, attacked the Terceras; and though many of his adherents were captured and executed by the Spaniards, he kept several places, coined money, and at length, on visiting England, was so

well received by Elizabeth, that she sent out Sir Francis Drake and Sir John Morris with a strong fleet and large army to restore him. The expedition was rendered abortive by the skill of Philip; and Antonio, returning to France, died there in actual poverty. For some years after this event, continual pretensions were made to the Portuguese throne by impostors, who respectively affirmed themselves to be 'the true Sebastian.' One in particular, like our Perkin Warbec, supported by persons of distinction, commenced his career at Venice; and after bringing over to his cause the Dutch, and a large portion of the Spaniards and Italians, declared himself an impostor at Naples, 1597. He was thereupon transported to a castle in Castile, and never heard of more. The administration of Philip in Portugal was certainly detrimental to the nation: his prodigious preparations for the invasion of England by the 'Armada,' while it impoverished all his European dominions, actually exhausted that country. The pretensions of Don Antonio and 'the Sebastians' not only obliged him to mortgage the customs-duties (a debt which to this day is hardly liquidated,) but compelled the imposition of ship-money, and other taxes of a grievous nature; notwithstanding all which, Philip went to his grave 1598, lamented by his new subjects, who were wont to declare 'that of bad masters he was the best.' Portugal, however, has never from this period held more than a middle station among European nations.

GERMANY UNDER FERDINAND I. &c.—Ferdinand I. succeeded his brother Charles V. on his abdication, 1556; but when he notified his election to pope Paul IV., that pontiff refused to acknowledge him, on the ground that Charles had relinquished his power without the consent of the holy see. Pius IV. soon succeeding, he complied with the wishes of the new emperor; but the German electors, indignant at the conduct of Paul, issued an edict, to the effect

'that no emperor should in future receive the crown from the hands of the pope, and that, instead of the customary form in which the emperor elect professed his obedience to the head of the Church, a mere complimentary epistle should be substituted;' and this was observed on the election of Maximilian, son of Ferdinand, to be king of the Romans, a title which insured his succession to the empire. Thus ended that temporal dependence of the German empire on the see of Rome, which had been the subject of so many controversies and wars. Ferdinand continued throughout his reign to hold the balance even between the protestants and catholics, with regard to their mutual toleration, and outward harmony; he even endeavoured to effect an union of the two communions, by trying to persuade the protestants to send deputies to, and acknowledge the authority of, the council assembled at Trent. This, however, they refused to do, unless their theologians were acknowledged equal in dignity to the catholic bishops, and the council were transferred from Trent to some city of the empire. Ferdinand, on the other hand, hoping to conciliate some of the dissenting sects in his states, attempted to obtain of the pope the use of the cup at the communion for the laity, and the liberty of marriage for the priests. Pius IV., however, moderate as he was, would not listen to these concessions, especially the latter; and the negotiations were still pending with regard to the former, when the emperor died at Vienna, 1564. MAXIMILIAN II., his son, succeeded, having already married his cousin, Mary, daughter of Charles V., and been elected king of Hungary and Bohemia. Tranquillity was preserved during his reign, if we except a war with the Turks, which led to no important results. Maximilian was a munificent patron of learned men, and a complete master of languages. He was elected king of Poland; but his death at Ratisbon, at the age of

50, 1576, prevented his taking possession of that throne. RODOLPH II., his son, was his successor. He carried on a war in Hungary with the Turks, with various success; and entering into disputes with his brother Matthias, was compelled to cede both Hungary and Austria to him. His death occurred at the age of 60, 1612; whereon Matthias became his successor in the empire.

POLAND UNDER HENRI DE VALOIS, &c.—An interregnum of a year occurred on the death of Sigismund II., last of the house of Jagellon, 1572. Poland at that juncture became a prey to intestine divisions; and numerous intrigues were set on foot at the courts of Germany, France, Saxony, Sweden, and Brandenburg, each endeavouring to establish a prince of their own nation on the throne. The protestants had obtained a considerable footing in the kingdom; and a law was now passed by the Polish diet, to the effect that the future kings should expressly swear to cherish, without distinction, their subjects of all persuasions. At length the French interest prevailed; HENRI DE VALOIS, duke of Anjou, of whose influence at home Charles IX. had become so jealous, was received at Cracow with great joy as the new sovereign. The affections of the Poles were soon engaged by the youth and accomplishments of Henri; but scarcely was he seated on the throne, when, by the death of Charles IX., he became heir to the crown of France. Sensible that the Poles would oppose his departure, he kept his intention secret, and watched an opportunity of stealing from the palace by night, and making the best of his way towards France. Having effected his object, his escape was soon discovered, and parties were despatched after him by different roads; but when Zamoski, an influential nobleman, overtook him at some leagues distant from Cracow, all his prayers and tears could not prevail on Henri to return. The Poles became hereupon so much exasperated, that all

the French in Cracow would have been massacred, had not the magistrates placed guards in the streets; and in 1575 Henri was solemnly deposed. After a full year of contention between the emperor Maximilian and STEPHEN BATTORI, prince of Transylvania, the latter prevailed; and marrying Anne Jagellon, sister of Sigismund II., he was acknowledged king, 1576, by all but the people of Dantzie. That place he reduced after great labour, 1577, liberally granting the citizens, on their surrender, full liberty of adhering to the confession of Augsburg, though himself a rigid supporter of the hierarchy; and he then turned his attention to the Muscovites, who, under Ivan IV., had seized many important cities of Livonia, while he lay before Dantzie. Investing Polocz, a German town belonging to Poland, on the Dwina, the Russians, thinking to intimidate the Poles, put the chief citizens of the place to the most cruel deaths; so that when Battori came near, the river appeared a stream of blood, a vast number of human bodies, fastened to planks, and terribly mangled, slowly floating in ghastly array upon its surface. The Poles, however, nothing daunted at the sight, advanced to the assault with such spirit, that the Russians were soon obliged to surrender at discretion; and it speaks highly for the clemency of Battori, that he would not suffer his soldiers to retaliate. Indeed the outrages committed by the Scythian barbarians on this occasion would have authorised any revenge, according to military notions. A number of Germans were found expiring under the most dreadful tortures: after having been dipped in cauldrons of boiling oil, with a cord drawn under the skin of the umbilical region, which fastened their hands behind, their eyes had been torn from their sockets, or seared with red-hot irons, and their faces horribly cut. Battori continued the war with great success; and though John, king of Sweden, allied with the Muscovites

for a time against him, he defeated both their armies, and compelled Ivan to sue for peace, which was granted on his cession of Livonia to Poland, after having thrown away the lives of 400,000 of his people in attempting its subjection. Tranquillity being thus restored, Battori applied himself to the internal government of his kingdom. He greatly strengthened and better disciplined the Polish cavalry, and sent a body of them towards the frontiers of Tartary; by which means the Ukraine, a vast tract of desert country, was filled with flourishing towns and villages, and became a strong barrier against Turks, Tartars, and Russians. The last memorable action of Battori was his attacking the Cossacks to Poland, and his civilizing and instructing them in the arts of war and peace. He gave them the city of Tschtemeravia, on the Boristhenes, as a capital, formed them into a regular militia, encouraged Polish artisans to settle among them, and induced them to attend to agriculture. While thus employed, the Swedes incited the people of Riga to rebel, in consequence of Battori's attempt to re-establish the old religion there; and the king was preparing to punish the revolt, when death seized him, 1587, at the age of 53. This event involved Poland in fresh troubles. Four candidates appeared for the crown, the princes Ernest and Maximilian of Austria, Sigismund of Sweden, and Feodor of Muscovy. Each had a separate party; but Sigismund and Maximilian managed matters so well, that in 1587 both of them were elected. The consequence of this was a civil war; in which Maximilian was defeated in that year, and taken prisoner, and SIGISMUND III., named De Vasa, became undisputed master of Poland. He waged a successful war with the Tartars, and was otherwise prosperous; but though he succeeded to the crown of Sweden 1592, he found it impossible to retain that kingdom, and was formally deposed from its throne 1604. In 1610 he

conquered Russia, and declared his son Czar; but Polish supremacy in that country has always been evanescent, and the Russians not only drove out the usurper, but made encroachments on Poland itself. A very unfortunate war also took place with Sweden, which was now governed by the great Gustavus; and at last Sigismund, worn out with cares and misfortunes, died, aged 66, 1632.

RUSSIA UNDER FEODOR IVANOWITZ, &c.—Feodor succeeded his warlike father Ivan IV., 1584, but was a prince of weak intellect, under whom affairs at length fell into confusion, 1597. **BORIS GUDENOV**, a nobleman whose sister Feodor had married, thereupon caused the czar's brother, Demetrius, a youth of nine, to be assassinated, and shortly after, Feodor himself, and then seized the throne, 1598. With Feodor ended the line of Rurik, which had governed the empire 700 years. The chief incident of interest in the usurper's reign is the desolation of the district of Moscow by one of the most dreadful famines on record. Thousands of people lay dead in the streets and highways, with their mouths full of hay, straw, or even the most filthy things, which they had been attempting to eat. In many houses, the fattest person was killed, in order to serve as food to the rest. Petrius says, that he himself saw a woman bite several pieces out of a child's arm, as she was carrying it along; and Margerit relates, that four women, having ordered a peasant to come to one of their houses, under pretence of paying him for some wood, killed, and eat up both him and his horse. This dreadful calamity lasted 3 years, 1600–2, notwithstanding the means which Boris used to alleviate it; and in that time, upwards of 500,000 people perished in the city alone. In 1604, a young man appeared, who pretended to be the murdered Demetrius. Being supported by the Poles, who had renewed hostilities with Russia since the usurpation, this false Demetrius proved very troublesome to Boris during the re-

mainder of his life, which terminated by a fever, 1605.

THE NETHERLANDS DURING THE REVOLT.—The Netherlands or Low Countries came into the possession of the house of Austria by the marriage of Mary of Burgundy with the emperor Maximilian, 1477; from whom they passed in regular descent to Charles V., 1519. When that emperor resigned them to his son Philip II. of Spain, 1555, they were in a very flourishing condition; for in that small tract of country were no less than 350 large cities inclosed with walls, and 6300 considerable towns, all become rich by their application to the arts and commerce. The reformed doctrines had gained ground in the Low Countries during the reign of Charles V.; and to put them down, that emperor had established the Inquisition, and is said to have caused by various means the death of 50,000 protestants. Following his father's example, Philip declared he would rather be without subjects than rule over heretics; and relinquishing his court in the Netherlands, he deputed their government to his natural sister, the duchess of Parma, 1560, who, with cardinal Granville, a staunch opponent of the protestants, as her chief adviser, began her rule. She had no sooner, however, arrived at Brussels, than petitions were poured in from all quarters against the Inquisition and the cardinal; and she found a powerful confederacy already formed against her, headed by William of Nassau, prince of Orange, and the counts Egmont and Horn. The event was, that in 1564 the cardinal was obliged to resign his dignity; whereupon the duchess informed her brother that, within a few days, 100,000 persons had left his dominions in disgust, and that if she remained much longer in the Netherlands, she should find herself alone. The duke of Alva, therefore, was appointed to succeed her in the government; but as that nobleman was inflexibly hostile to the reformed

opinions, the public discontent burst forth in the most unequivocal manner when he had seized and executed counts Egmont and Horn. The prince of Orange escaped, and found sufficient support among the reformed party to attempt a return in arms. Alva, however, defeated and dispersed his forces; and he was compelled to fly to Germany, 1569. A series of conflicts then ensued between the adherents of the prince, and the Spanish army under Alva; and as the latter usually gained the advantage, he made terrible examples of the towns which had shown the slightest favour to his opponents. Rotterdam and other places were pillaged, and the inhabitants put to the sword; while the prince of Orange, in retaliation, allowed his soldiers to plunder Mechlin, Oudenarde, and Dendemonde, wherein they murdered all the priests, cruelly insulted the females, and wholly despoiled the churches. In attempting to raise Alva's siege of Mons, the prince was foiled; and the St. Barthélemy massacre at Paris occurring at the moment, 1572, he was compelled to retire. The consequent reduction of Mons by Alva, and his severity to Mechlin, Oudenarde, and Dendemonde, whose people generally he put to death, in revenge for the conduct of the prince's soldiers to the clergy, paralysed the protestants everywhere but in Holland and Zealand; and Frederick of Toledo, who acted under Alva, made a terrible example of Waerden, the first town he took in the former province, in which infants, old men, women, and the sick, were all put to the sword. The defeat of the Spanish fleet by the Zealanders, and the rapid growth of disaffection, induced Alva to resign, 1573; and his successor, Don Lewis de Requesné, had orders to reduce the revoltors at all hazards. The prince of Orange obtained some trifling advantages over the new governor; but seeing little hope of a final triumph, he proposed that the protestant states should solicit Eliza-

beth of England to become their ruler. That queen rejected the offer, on political grounds; but while the negotiation was pending, a mutiny began, and spread throughout the Netherlands, catholic and protestant, in consequence chiefly of the defective pay of the Spanish soldiery. The fact is, the finances of Philip were nearly ruined; and to avoid the violence of the mutineers, who began plundering the towns, both catholics and protestants united suddenly to form what is called the 'pacification of Ghent,' 1575. This was a confederacy of all the provinces to expel foreign soldiers; to assemble the states in the manner practised under the house of Burgundy and Charles V.; to suspend all the edicts of the duke of Alva on the subject of religion, until the states-general should take the matter into consideration; to release all the natives made prisoners, mutually, without ransom; and to restore all things upon the same footing as before the war. Don John of Austria succeeded as governor of the catholic provinces on the death of Requesné, 1576, and the prince of Orange was still allowed to remain governor of the protestant states; but the latter refusing to sign the treaty of Ghent, on the ground that Philip had already infringed it, by sending fresh troops into Guelderland, hostilities recommenced. Alternately successful and unfortunate in the war which thus ensued, the prince formed the scheme of more closely uniting the two provinces of which he was governor, and of adding to them others, if possible, wherein the protestant interest prevailed. Deputies, therefore, at his suggestion, met at Utrecht, Jan. 23, 1579, from the provinces of Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Groningen, Overysse, and Guelderland, and signed the alliance ever since known as the *Union of Utrecht*, the basis of that commonwealth afterwards so renowned as 'the United Provinces.' In this union the executive offices and com-

mand of the forces were vested in the prince of Orange, as stadtholder; every province was to be ruled by its own laws, but the whole were to assemble by deputies at the states-general, or diet, held at the Hague; the chief deputy for the year of each city being called 'pensionary,' and the chief minister of the states-general, under the stadtholder, 'grand-pensionary.' The latter was to continue in office five years. It was not hereby intended to divide the seven provinces from the other ten, or to renounce the pacification of Ghent: its object was to preserve the liberty stipulated in that pacification, by more vigorous operations and more united councils. It was expected that the important object of this alliance would have attracted the attention of the Walloons, (a general name for the inhabitants of Artois, Hainault, Namur, Luxemburg, Flanders, and Brabant, all in the Netherlands,) and indeed of all the catholic inhabitants of the Netherlands: it in fact did so,—but in a manner far opposed to that which had been imagined. The Walloons not only refused to accede to the union, but made the strongest remonstrances to the states-general upon the danger, impropriety, and illegality of such a confederacy; and, backed by the duke of Parma, they soon began a contest with the allied provinces. After the sacking of Maestricht and other towns by the duke of Parma, the prince of Orange prevailed on the union once more to seek a foreign protector, rather than be dissolved; and the duke of Anjou, though a catholic, was accordingly declared sovereign, not only of the seven provinces, but of the whole Netherlands, in lieu of Philip, 1580. In 1582, therefore, the new ruler arrived at Flushing from England, where he had been vainly soliciting the hand of Elizabeth; and his reception at Antwerp, where he was crowned duke of Brabant by the prince of Orange himself, was splendid beyond anything before seen in the Low Countries. When the king

of Spain was informed of this open defection, attributing the whole to William of Orange, he proceeded to proscribe him, confiscated his estates, and promised a reward of 25,000 crowns to any party who would capture him dead or alive; an offer which incited one Jauregui to attempt his assassination, as he could not hope to entrap him. While the States were engrossed in festivities on occasion of the duke's coronation, the villain, who had obtained an entrance to the citadel by bribing a domestic, discharged a pistol at William, as he was passing after dinner into another room, and wounded him behind the ear. The prince was stunned with the force of the ball, and, before he recovered, the assassin was killed by his attendants; but although for this time he escaped the danger, he was, in 1584, shot at and killed at Delft, by Balthazar Gerard, a madman, who had long been faithful to him, was at the time in his confidence, and who could assign no motive whatever for the deed. Gerard was executed with unusual tortures: nevertheless the death of the prince restored the Spanish influence; the duke of Anjou, unable to contend against the duke of Parma, retired to France to die; and confusion and anarchy reigned throughout the States.

DELHI UNDER AKBER. — Akber, third great mongul, and the most celebrated of all the monarchs of Hindustan, ascended the throne in his 14th year, under the guidance of Bairam Khan Khanan, his minister. After putting down the turbulence of his own officers, he attempted the extension of his territories; and in the course of his reign, Malwa, Guzerat, Bengal, Kashmir, Kandeish, and Berar, were annexed to the empire. He put Hindu chiefs into office, in order to keep in check his mutinous Omrahs, Turks, and Afghans; and he even took wives, contrary to the custom of his people, from among the Hindu women. He assessed the lands, divided his empire into subahs (provinces), and ventured

to form a new faith out of the Christian, Hindu, and Parsi religions ; for which purpose he encouraged persons of each creed to dispute in his presence. It is needless to say that all the learning was on the side of the Hindus and Parsees. The issue of the proceeding was the promulgation of a species of Hindu bull, calling on all the subjects of the great mongul to acknowledge one God, and the king as his vicegerent. During the reign of Abker, the Túgs first became known in Hindustan by their murderous practices. To trace the origin of these fanatics would be a difficult matter : suffice it to say, themselves would wish to make it appear that, in immolating the numberless victims that yearly fall by their hands, they are only obeying the injunctions of the deity of their worship, to whom they are offering an acceptable sacrifice. The object of their idolatry is the goddess Kallee, or Bhowanee, and there is a temple at Binda Chul, near Mirzapur, to which the Túgs send considerable offerings ; the priests at the shrine being entirely of their community. Bhowanee, it seems, once formed the determination of extirpating the human race, and sacrificed all but her own disciples. But she discovered, to her astonishment, through the intervention of the Creating Power, that whenever human blood was shed, a fresh subject immediately started into existence to supply the vacancy. She therefore formed an image, into which she instilled the principles of life ; and calling together her disciples, instructed them in the art of again destroying that life, by strangling with a handkerchief. The goddess then directed her worshippers to murder, without distinction, all who should fall into their hands ; promising herself to dispose of the bodies of their victims (whose property she bestowed on themselves), and to preside over, and protect them on those occasions. ' Thus,' say the Túgs, ' was our order established ; and we originally took no care of the corpses of those who fell by our hands,

but abandoned them wherever they were strangled, until one man, more curious than the rest, ventured to watch the body he had murdered, in the expectation of seeing the manner in which it was disposed of. The goddess descended as usual to carry away the corpse ; but observing the intruder, she relinquished her purpose, and, calling him, angrily rebuked him for his temerity, telling him she could no longer perform her promise regarding the bodies of the murdered, which his associates must hereafter dispose of in the best way they could.' Hence, it is affirmed, arose the practice, invariably followed by the Túgs, of burying the dead ; and to this circumstance principally is to be attributed the fact of their atrocities having gone on to this day unavenged. The Túgs of the present day are chiefly in the Nizam's dominions (Hyderabad), where they are called Kockbunds, and Phanseegurs ; having derived all their names from ' decoying ' those they fix upon to destroy. They disclaim the practice of house-breaking, and indeed of every species of stealing that has not been preceded by murder ; they still adopt no other method of killing but strangulation ; and the implement used is still a handkerchief. They therefore never attempt to rob a traveller until they have deprived him of life ; and after the murder, invariably bury the body. Abker made examples of great numbers of Túgs by hanging, and leaving their bodies to the birds ; and his opportune severity drove them entirely from the territory immediately under his sway. As men of talent were patronized by Abker, the most important Sanskrit works were translated into Persian, under the able direction of Abulfazi, the prime minister, and his brother, Sheikh Feizi ; Abker himself figuring as an author. This distinguished prince died 1605.

FOUNDATION OF BRITISH INDIA.—In 1600, a number of private individuals in England subscribed to fit out four ships with cargoes for India.

They were empowered to trade there by a charter from Elizabeth; and no persons, except 'the Company,' were permitted to trade to India for 15 years. At the end of that period, it was renewed for another term, and so on, with few interruptions, to the present day. In 1698, a rival company received a charter; but after a short period the two joined, and thereupon assumed the title of 'the United East India Company,' 1708. Upon the conquest of great part of Hindustan by the British, 1759, the English government, in consideration that the company had mainly contributed to the event by their trading visits, the employment of their capital, and their excellent regulations, left to them the political management of the acquired countries, subject to certain restrictions. 'The government of India,' says professor Wilson, 'is divided between two authorities: the one controlling, the other executive; the former in England, the latter in India. The former exists in the individuals associated for the purpose of trading to India, or the East India Company, and in the government of Great Britain. From the members of the company, who are numerous, 24 directors are elected, with whom the government of India corresponds on all subjects whatever; and no measures can be regarded as final without their sanction. All appointments to India rest in them; but those of the governors and commanders-in-chief are subject to the approbation of the king. The acts of the directors are liable to be canvassed in courts or meetings of the proprietors, and their correspondence with India is subject to the revision of the Board of Control, appointed by the king. In India, the administration is in the hands of a governor and council at each presidency, and in a governor-general and council in Bengal. These are all appointed from England; but the members of council are necessarily chosen from the company's Indian civil servants. The judicial and fiscal duties of the state devolve upon Europeans of respectable connexions

and education, who are sent to India in early life, and gradually rise to the most responsible employments. The army is officered by individuals of a similar description. At each presidency the criminal law is based upon Mohammedan, considerably modified by local regulations. Disputes regarding property are decided, according to the religion of the litigants, by Hindu or Mohammedan law. At the seat of government, under each presidency, an English court of law, the judges of which are appointed by the king, is established for the adjudication of matters regarding Europeans throughout India, and regarding natives within the limits of the towns of Calcutta and Madras, and the island of Bombay. Each presidency has its own military force, consisting of several regiments of European troops, and a large proportion of native regiments, officered by Europeans. The whole force may be estimated at 200,000 men. The revenues of the empire are about 18,000,000*l.* The average expenditure, including the interest of the public debt, was less than this sum, by nearly 4,000,000*l.*, at the expiration of the administration of the marquis of Hastings. The population of British India has never been exactly ascertained, but may be computed at 120,000,000, of which scarcely one-tenth is Mohammedan. In the south of India, the Parsees and Christians exist in some numbers; but the great body of the people is Hindu. However identified generally by their religion, the Hindus offer many varieties; and the differences of language and conformation, which prevail very extensively, indicate a difference of origin, and add to the many artificial distinctions which universally prevail. These last are in a great degree peculiar to India, and may be considered as a chief cause of political degradation. Besides the primitive separation of castes, a spirit of social discord splits the population into tribes, clans, trades, sects, families, and associations, which prevent the possibility of any great national combination for

national objects.' To the above may be added that, when the appointments of civil or military officers are made by the company in London, the directors' influence over them ceases: the future promotion of the individual resting with the local governments in India, which consequently exercise a very considerable portion of the general patronage. The rule of seniority is, *ceteris paribus*, respected, so far as to deprive the governor-general of what might be considered his patronage; but there are many important situations where it is absolutely necessary to overlook mere seniority, and to select men of marked ability. Every appointment is afterwards liable to vigilant scrutiny by the directors in London.

PERSIA UNDER ISMAIL II., &c.—The sons of Tamasp I. disputed the succession on his death 1576, and Ismail, the eldest, obtained the throne for a year. In 1577 he was dispossessed by his brother, Mohammed Mirza, who, amid the turbulent proceedings of numerous pretenders to the sovereignty, passed a harassing reign of eight years. He was then driven out by the chief of Khorasan (one of the Sefiavéan house) 1585, who, by means of great bribes, obtained the crown of the Sophis for his youngest son, Abbas, afterwards styled 'the Great.'

NAVARRÉ UNDER HENRI DE BOURBON.—It has been shown that Henri succeeded his mother Joan, 1572, as sovereign of Navarre, being then not quite 19; and he was kept, in opposition to his inclinations, at the court of France. He, however, in 1576, made his escape, and retired to Alençon; where he immediately engaged again in the protestant party, and again professed the reformed faith. From that period until the year 1589, his life was a continual mixture of battles, pacifications, and ruptures with the court of France. He obtained several advantages over Henri III., and especially in 1587 at Coutras; but that monarch at length, in order to oppose the League, (which, after the murder of the duc

and cardinal de Guise was more furious than ever,) entered into a treaty of amity with him at Tours, 1589. After many and great demonstrations of their mutual satisfaction, they joined their troops, and marched together to besiege Paris; and they were on the point of taking it, when Henri III. was assassinated by Clement, Aug. 1, 1589. The right of Henri of Navarre to the crown of France being undisputed, that prince was thereupon acknowledged sovereign, by the title of Henri IV.

HUNGARY UNDER BETHLEM GABOR.—This personage had been early educated in the calvinistic tenets, and raised from an humble station to a post about the person of Gabriel Battori, voyvode of Transylvania. Having been sent on various confidential missions by Gabriel, he at length accepted, with his permission, a command in the Turkish army; but he most atrociously took advantage of his new station, and entering Transylvania at the head of a Moslem force, drove out his benefactor, and soon after caused himself to be crowned, 1618. Ferdinand II. of Austria, the rightful king, who had just succeeded to the throne, fled on hearing of Bethlem's proceedings; and it was not until 1620 that Ferdinand, now emperor, sent against him the counts Dampierre and Bucquoy. They were, however, defeated, and slain; Bethlem thereupon proposed a peace; but Ferdinand would grant one on no other condition than his renouncing all title to Hungary. As the usurper had many supporters among the Hungarian nobles, who were commonly the opponents of Austrian domination, a series of petty conflicts ensued between the troops of Bethlem and the emperor; but the latter had at last the advantage, and Bethlem, on being allowed the dignity of a prince of the empire, resigned the Hungarian crown, 1624. This adventurer died 1629, and, singularly enough, left all his property, which was of large amount, between the emperor and other princes,

against whom he had contended. (See *Tekeli*.)

FLORENCE UNDER COSMO I.—This descendant of the brother of the first Cosmo de Medici (and who ought properly to be styled II.) succeeded to the dukedom on the assassination of Alexander, his kinsman, 1536; though anarchy reigned so in the state, that he can hardly be said to have ruled until 1557. His cause was favoured against certain Florentine exiles by Charles V.; and that emperor restored Siena to Florence, 1553, when Cosmo had aided him to suppress a revolt of its people. Cosmo liberally encouraged letters and the fine arts; restored the university of Pisa; invited professors from all parts; established the academy of Florence, and its famous gallery, which he furnished with antique relics, and fine paintings; encouraged the formation of extensive botanical gardens; and his anxiety to promote the welfare of his subjects induced Pious V. to bestow upon him, 1569, the title of grand-duke of Tuscany, and to crown him at Rome. But the domestic affairs of Cosmo were tragically unhappy. He had two sons, John and Garcia, the former made a cardinal at 17; but the attainments and high character of his brother having excited envy in the bosom of Garcia, the jealous youth, during a hunting excursion, stabbed the cardinal to the heart. The murder was concealed; but Cosmo, suspecting the author of it, taxed him with it, and finally, having induced him to confess the deed, drew Garcia's dagger from his side, and laid him dead by the side of his brother. Their mother survived them but a few days. Cosmo, after a distinguished reign of 38 years, died 1574; and the family of Medici continued on the grand ducal throne till 1737, when John Gaston dying without issue, Tuscany was ceded to the Spanish family by an article in the general peace of 1735.

IRELAND UNDER ELIZABETH.—During the reign of Henry VIII. Irish affairs had been wholly neg-

lected; and its disorders were further promoted by the innovations in religion which that king introduced, and which were exceedingly disagreeable both to English and Irish. The Reformation, however, continued to make progress, though slowly, during the reign of Mary; for as the persecution did not reach to Ireland, many protestants fled thither. The machinations of the Spaniards against Elizabeth excited the Irish to fresh insurrections; and Philip gladly sent them troops, with which they got possession of Kinsale, while Tyrone outwitted Elizabeth's general, the earl of Essex. The lord deputy Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex, gave a mortal blow to the united Spanish and Irish before Kinsale; and the Spaniards (now few in number) on seeing so large an army of Irish thus defeated by a handful of their enemies, expressed their contempt of their allies by surrendering the places they had made themselves masters of, and offering to assist the English in reducing the rebels. The Irish, thus abandoned, were unable to carry on the war; and the grand rebel O'Neil of Tyrone, being carried prisoner by Mountjoy to England, was, after the most abject submissions, pardoned by the queen, 1602. No insurgent now remained who had not obtained or sued for mercy. Many indeed were driven by necessity to the continent, and earned a subsistence by serving in the armies of Spain; and thus a race of Irish exiles was trained to arms, filled with a malignant resentment against the English. The honour therefore of reducing all the enemies of the crown of England in Ireland, after a continued contest of 440 years, was reserved for the arms of Elizabeth. Dublin University was now restored by royal charter; and so completely was tranquillity established, that wheat, which had risen to the price of 9*l.* the quarter, fell soon to 36*s.*; beef from 8*l.* the carcass to 5*s.*; a lamb from 6*s.* to 1*s.*; and every other species of provision in proportion.

EMINENT PERSONS.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE (1564—1616), son of a dealer in wool (who was of fair descent, and had himself acted for some time as a justice of peace), was born at Stratford-on-Avon, Warwickshire, his mother being of the ancient family of Arden in that county. He was the eldest of ten children, and was early removed from the grammar-school of Stratford, as business was to form the employment of his future life; but after being some time in his father's trade, he married at 17 the daughter of Hathaway, a neighbouring farmer, a woman eight years older than himself. He was at this time wild and irregular; and joining with some dissipated companions, he, in a thoughtless hour, accompanied them in deer-stealing in the park of Sir Thomas Lucy of Charlecote. The offence was repeated, and a prosecution was consequently begun; but the poet, instead of conciliating the baronet by submission, wrote a ballad upon him with satirical bitterness. Flying therefore to London to escape the law, 1586, he enrolled himself among the players; and, according to tradition, was necessitated in the first instance to become the prompter's call-boy, sometimes holding the horses of those who attended the play without servants. At length he became an actor himself; but, according to Rowe, the ghost in his own *Hamlet* was the highest character which he ventured to perform. He was born, not to act, but to delineate; not to play the hero, but to create characters and beings of his own; and, with the pencil of nature, to pourtray in the most glowing colours the various emotions of the heart. Without patronage, and an exile from his native town, the poet at last burst to eminence and fame. His plays became popular, several of them were performed before the court, and Elizabeth was so pleased with his *Falstaff*, in the two parts of

Henry IV., that she wished to see the valiant knight in love—a hint which produced the inimitable '*Merry Wives of Windsor*.' These exertions for the entertainment of the court and of the public no doubt raised patrons to the poet; but little is known of them, and the name of lord Southampton only is mentioned as distinguishing him with his friendship, and by his gift to him of 1000*l*. He finally became a proprietor and manager by licence of the Globe Theatre in Southwark; and it was in this situation that he afforded Ben Jonson the opportunity of appearing as a dramatic writer. Having a sobriety and moderation in his views of life not very common in the profession which he adopted, he retired early with a fortune of 300*l*. (equal now to 1000*l*.) per annum to his native town; where he lived, respected and beloved, in a house which he bought of the Clopton family, named New Place, and where he died on his birthday, April 23, 1616, having exactly completed his 52nd year. New Place remained to the poet's descendants (by his two daughters) till the Cloptons repurchased it at the Restoration; and Sir Hugh Clopton entertained Garrick, Macklin, and others in 1742 under the mulberry-tree planted by the poet in the garden. This tree afterwards became an object of veneration; and when cut down by a peevish purchaser of the estate (Mr. Gastrel, a clergyman), to avoid the disturbance occasioned by visitors, a silversmith of Stratford prevented its being used as fuel, by purchasing it, and fashioning it into various utensils, which sold for a high price, and were preserved with more than common affection. The poet was buried in the chancel of Stratford church, where a monument is placed on the wall, in which he is represented under an arch, in a sitting position. Shakspeare stands at the head of English

dramatic poetry, and has some claim to the same rank as regards the modern drama in general. In imagination, knowledge of human nature, and descriptive power, he has not a rival; and as his was a born and natural muse, he wrote for all time. The plays of Jonson for a whole century were preferred to those of the bard of Avon; but when a correct taste was restored, and that long after the restoration of learning, nature was observed in every page of the latter, and the 'rare Ben Jonson,' who was then perceived to have painted only the flitters-by of the passing hour—personages whose characters had died out of the world with their eccentricities and follies—sank into oblivion. It should, however, be borne in mind, that, from the licence of his day, the plays of our illustrious poet require much pruning, if required as a book for the young—for the youthful female more especially; and the wise mother or instructress will joyfully select some such edition as Mr. Bowdler's for her daughters, or her pupils.

LUIS DE CAMOENS (1522—1579) was born of an ancient family at Lisbon, and after studying at Coimbra, was introduced at the court of João III. An amour with Catarina d'Atayda, a lady far above him in rank, occasioned his exile to Estramadura; and he then served as a volunteer in the fleet sent to the aid of Ceuta, and lost an eye in a sea-fight off Gibraltar. Returning to Lisbon, he was again, on some unknown ground, banished, and thereupon embarked for India in the fleet of Cabral, 1553, exclaiming, in the words of Africanus' epitaph, as he quitted the Tagus, 'Ingrata patria! non possidebis ossa mea.' He arrived at Goa in the only ship of the four that was not wrecked, and soon engaged with his countrymen in the contest then carrying on between the king of Cochin and the king of Pimenta; in which he fought bravely for the former, and then aided in conquering the Alagada islands. After this, his

turn for satire occasioned his banishment by the viceroy of Goa to Macao, where, for fear of starving, he took the post of administrator of dead persons' affairs, and in his leisure hours began his 'Lusiad,' a poem which has won him the title of the Homer and Virgil of Portugal, though 'its Ariosto' might have been the more appropriate epithet. Having received permission from a new viceroy to return to Goa, he was shipwrecked in the passage thither; and hesaved with great difficulty, by clinging to a plank, his poems and his life—carrying, like Cæsar, the former in his hand. Next, imprisoned for fresh satires, a witty poem induced the viceroy to release him, and allow him to join an expedition to Sofala; and at length, after 16 years' absence and uncertainty, he returned to Lisbon in utter poverty, 1569, just as that city was being ravaged by the plague. The youthful Sebastian was then king, and Camoens, completing his great poem, dedicated it to him. Sebastian, however, was of too serious a turn to relish a work of such a character: and though he acknowledged the attention of the poet by awarding him a trifling pension, did nothing for him more. The health of Camoens, undermined by his residence and tumultuous life in India, was now gradually sinking; and retiring to a hospital, he for a long period tenanted one of its beds, and there died, aged 57, 1579. The object of Camoens in his *Lusiad* (*Os Lusíadas*, the Lusitanians or Portuguese,) was to record the acts of the great men of Portugal in general; and Vasco di Gama is the hero, on whose discovery of India he makes their achievements to hinge. Viewing the work in parts,—the narration of Inez de Castro's tragic fate, that of the battle of Ourique, which raised Portugal to independence, and that of the battle of Aljubarota, are striking specimens of the author's descriptive powers; and taking it as a whole, it is a wondrous monument of his ability to blend so many subjects and so many

characters in one harmonious theme. For imagery, invention, pathos, and sublime flights, many of the more regular epics are less remarkable than the *Lusiad*; and its only fault is that very common one of the author's day, the heterogeneous mingling of sacred and profane subjects.

EDMUND SPENSER (1553—1599), of the noble family of Spenser, was educated at Pembroke-hall, Cambridge; and going as tutor into the house of a relative, he there paid his addresses unsuccessfully to a lady whom he records as 'Rosaline' in his 'Shepherd's Calendar,' a very beautiful poem, his first publication. In 1580 he accompanied lord Grey de Wilton, the lord-lieutenant, to Ireland; and that nobleman procured him in 1586 a grant of 3028 acres in the county of Cork, out of the forfeited lands of the earl of Desmond. Sir Walter Raleigh, inviting him to accompany him to England for a short time, introduced him to Elizabeth; to whom the poet then dedicated the first three books of his 'Faery Queene.' With a 50*l.* pension from Elizabeth he returned to Ireland, and in 1594 married; but he had not long enjoyed his connubial retirement before it was disquieted by the disturbances excited by the earl of Tyrone, which drove him again to England, where he published three more cantos of the 'Faery Queene,' all of twelve *intended* portions that seem ever to have been executed by the poet. Again returning to Ireland, he was made sheriff of Cork, 1598; but Tyrone's rebellion actually breaking out, he was compelled to fly from Kilcolman with such precipitation, that his infant child was left behind, and burned by the insurgents with the house. The unhappy poet arrived heart-broken in England, and died in the following January, 1599, in his 47th year. Spenser would live by his (for its time) most elegant production, 'The Shepherd's Calendar,' but it is the 'Faery Queene' on which posterity has chosen to found his fame. There

is in the latter the fault so conspicuous in the *Lusiad*, namely, the mingling, in defiance of all propriety, pagan and christian images; the work also is incomplete, and the metre cumbrous; but it abounds in vivid descriptions, fine sentiments, and the most elevated conceptions.

TORQUATO TASSO, born at Sorrento of a respectable family, exhibited from infancy great quickness of understanding; and at the early age of 17, took a degree in the four branches of civil law, canon law, theology, and philosophy, at the university of Padua. His poem of *Rinaldo* having attracted the attention of cardinal d'Eate, that prelate took him with him to France, and enabled him to begin the work that has immortalized his name, '*Gerusalemme Liberata*,' having for its subject the recovery of the holy city from the infidels by Godefroi de Bouillon, in the first crusade. Before it was completed, the poet's dramatic pastoral of *Aminta* was represented; of which species of composition it is deemed one of the finest examples. Tasso's fame, however, had no sooner spread throughout Europe, than it was rumoured he had been suddenly seized with madness, and had been thrown into prison by duke Alfonso of Ferrara. The poet's story at this period is involved in great obscurity; but there is reason to believe that a nervous fever, very commonly connected with keen sensibility and fervid genius, was the origin of his calamities. It is alleged that, in 1586, a courtier having spoken of him as being privately attached to the duke of Ferrara's sister Leonora, Tasso was induced to insult this person in the duke's presence-chamber, and that a fray ensued, wherein the three brothers of the courtier joined him in a sword-attack upon the poet. The courtier and his brothers were banished for the breach of etiquette, and Tasso was ordered by the duke to confine himself to his apartment. Fearing worse treatment, however, the poet (as the story goes) decamped,

and wandered, first to Turin, and then to Rome, and Sorrento. After some months' absence, he ventured again to Ferrara; but on being coldly received at court, he withdrew to Urbino. The duke d'Urbino counselled his immediate return; and the duke of Ferrara thereupon, whether affecting to believe, or really considering the poor poet to be mad, shut him up in the monastery of St. Anne, designed for lunatics. It was soon alleged that duke Alfonso was thus resenting Tasso's attachment to the princess Leonora, in his admiration of whom he had written numerous warmly-toned sonnets; but be this as it may, the poet soon became actually disordered in intellect, and, but for the solicitation of one or two cardinals, 1585, who obtained his release, he would have died. Tasso's eccentricity was now displayed by his wandering from town to town, without object, and, from his improvidence, often without money—the melancholy spectacle of a man, highly gifted by nature, who had been the favourite of princes, and the boast of Italy, reduced almost to fatuity and beggary. At length cardinal Aldebrandino met with him, and recommended him to Clement VIII.; and by the kind offices of these two illustrious patrons, he was in a measure restored to his senses, and to happiness. Pensioned, and at ease in the house of the cardinal, it was hoped he would live long to enjoy the congratulations of visitors; and the pope had even fixed a day for bestowing on him a solemn poetical canonization, when the sudden illness of the cardinal compelled a delay of the ceremonial. While waiting his friend's recovery, the poet himself was seized with symptoms which announced approaching dissolution; and being, at his own desire, removed to the monastery of St. Onofrio, he, with every demonstration of sincere piety, closed his life 1595, at the age of 51. On the 'Gerusalemme Liberata' rests the fame of Tasso; a poem among the few epics that rank as first-rate

productions. The subject is well adapted for lofty narrative; and, with little exception, the characters are well drawn and supported, the fictions strongly conceived, the style uniformly dignified, and the versification smooth, and to the last harmonious.

ROBERT DUDLEY, a younger son of John, duke of Northumberland, was gentleman of the bed-chamber to Edward VI.; and though involved in the sentence of attainder passed against his father by Mary, was employed by that queen. Elizabeth not only patronized him, but loaded him with honours; he was her master of the horse, a privy councillor, and the fortunate grantee of the princely estates of Denbigh, Kenilworth, and Chirk-castle; and at length aspiring to the hand of his royal patroness, he murdered his wife, Amy Robsart, at Cumnor-hall, Berkshire, 1560, to remove all obstacle to his ambitious project. The queen, however, disappointed his views, and encouraged him to solicit the hand of Mary of Scotland; but that princess rejected him with disdain, and Elizabeth so-laced him on the occasion with the titles of baron Denbigh, and earl of Leicester, 1564, in which year he was elected chancellor of Oxford. In 1572 he married, but soon after repudiated, lady Douglas Howard; in 1578 entertained the queen with great splendour at Kenilworth; and in 1579 married the widow of Walter, earl of Essex. In 1585 he was appointed governor of the Netherlands, then recently emancipated from Spain, and held that office two years, though by no means popular; and in 1588 he was commander-in-chief at Tilbury, against the Spanish Armada—in which year he died, aged 56.

ROBERT DEVEREUX, son of lord Hereford, was introduced at 17 at the court of his relative Elizabeth; and being an engaging youth, rapidly rose to distinction. He was step-son of the favourite Leicester, and succeeded that lord as master of the horse. He displayed becoming spirit

at the period of the Spanish invasion, and fought a duel with Sir Charles Blount, because of his marked attention to the queen. In 1589 he accompanied Sir Francis Drake in the expedition against Spain; but as he departed without the queen's permission, she displayed her affection for him by writing him a severe letter, which hurried him home. He yet more offended his royal mistress by marrying soon after the widow of Sir Philip Sidney. In 1591, he was sent with 4000 men to aid Henri IV. of France; in 1596 took a principal command in the expedition to Cadiz; and soon after was made master of the ordnance, earl marshal, and chancellor of the University of Cambridge. He was now advanced too high to sit at ease; and enemies, who longed for his honours, closely applied themselves to achieve his ruin. The first great shock he received in regard to the queen's favour, arose from the dispute regarding the appointment of a viceroy for Ireland, already related. That affair being settled, the foes of the earl induced the queen to place the government of the island in his unwilling hands 1598; but after an exile (as he termed it) of a year, in which his attempts to crush the rebellions of Munster and Tyrone were unavailing, he returned without leave. Not waiting to change his travelling dress, he burst into the queen's chamber one morning, just as she was rising; but though Elizabeth displayed no anger on the occasion, he was committed next day to the custody of the lord keeper, with whom he remained six months. No sooner had he regained his liberty, than he was guilty of many extravagancies. He determined to obtain an audience of the queen by force; he refused to attend the council when summoned; when Elizabeth sent the lord keeper and lord chief justice to ascertain his grievances, he imprisoned them; and he then marched into the city with certain of his adherents, in expectation that the people would rise in his favour. In this, however, he was

disappointed; he was besieged and ultimately taken in his house in Essex-street, committed to the Tower, tried by his peers, condemned, and executed. He died with firmness, having employed the short period between his sentence and his death very exemplarily, aged 34, 1601.

That Elizabeth had conceived a tender passion for Essex, is proved beyond a doubt. 'I am aware' says Mr. Walpole, 'that it is become a mode to treat the queen's passion for him as a romance. Voltaire laughs at it; and observes that when her struggle about him must have been at the greatest, (the time of his death,) she must have been 68. Had he been 68, it is probable she would not have been in love with him. Whenever Essex acted a fit of sickness, not a day passed without the queen's sending *often* to see him; and once she went so far as to sit long by his bed-side, and order his broth and other things. At this period a mask was given at Blackfriars on the marriage of lord Herbert; and Mrs. Fitton, a mask, solicited the queen to dance. "What are you?" asked her majesty—"Affection," replied the lady. "Affection!" said the queen, "Affection is false!" These were words of a heart ill at ease. She was then 68; she rose and danced—she might as naturally be in love.' The extraordinary part of the business is, that the queen should permit the death of the earl. It is certain she sent to him, when in confinement, a verbal message, to the effect that 'if she might with her honour, she would visit him;' and she spoke the words with tears in her eyes. She was irresolute as to his execution at the last, and even sent orders to countermand it; but when his obstinacy in refusing to ask her pardon was pointed out to her, she directed again that he should die. In the height of her passion for him she had given him a ring, telling him 'that whatever crime he should commit, she would pardon him, upon his returning that pledge.' Essex, when

he found himself condemned, applied to his relative, lady Howard, countess of Nottingham, desiring her to place the ring in the queen's hands; but her husband, the lord high admiral, the very man who had suppressed his rebellion, and taken him into custody, would not suffer her to acquit herself of the commission. Some time after the execution, lady Nottingham fell sick; and being near her death, sent word to the queen that she had something of consequence to communicate. Elizabeth came to her bed-side; and the countess having ordered all the attendants to withdraw, took the ring of Essex from under her pillow, and gave it to the queen, observing, 'that she hoped she would forgive her for not having returned it before.' Elizabeth's firmness hereupon entirely forsook her: she started up from the chair on which she had been sitting; with all the fury of a tigress threw herself upon the dying woman, and shook her violently; and exclaimed passionately, and aloud, 'God may forgive you, but I never will!' She, almost instantly after quitting the countess's house, sank into a species of lethargy, being only occasionally roused from her stupor to refuse peevishly the food which was offered her. She lay 10 days and nights on the ground in her chamber, supported by pillows; and was only removed into her bed, when she had no power to resist, the hand of death being upon her.

ROGER ASCHAM (1516 — 1568), born of a respectable family at Kirkley-Wiske, Yorkshire, completed his education at St. John's, Cambridge, and became Greek professor in that university, and subsequently tutor in the family of Henry VIII. To him queen Elizabeth was indebted for her classical knowledge. He never had higher preferment than a stall in York Cathedral, was an amiable and unambitious man, and wrote Latin with Ciceronian elegance. His 'Schoolmaster,' to point out the best modes of education, is a valu-

able book; and his maxim 'that, there is no *royal* road to learning,' which he first broached to king Henry, when he wished him to hurry his children along the path of education, though often controverted, especially in our own day, so rife with new and fallacious schemes of instruction, has never been practically refuted. 'It is hoped' (runs the advertisement of a schoolmaster, 'a clergyman of the church of England,' 1841,) 'that, by the adoption of *some of the improved methods* of tuition, the pupils (meaning his own) may be brought to feel an interest and pleasure in the business of education, instead of regarding it as a toil and a drudgery.' The scholar's road, however, in spite of schoolmasters' hopes, is long, arduous, and beset with difficulties and obstacles, which time and labour, hard labour, alone can overcome. It would be well if every youthful scholar reflected on what Sir Walter Scott wrote to his somewhat idle son. 'Mr. Williams,' says the amiable wizard of the north, 'will probably ground you more perfectly in the grammar of the classical languages than has hitherto been done; and this you will at first find but dry work. But there are many indispensable reasons why you must bestow the utmost attention upon it. The study of grammar, from its very asperities, is calculated to teach youth that patient labour which is necessary to the useful exertion of the understanding upon every other branch of knowledge. Language is the great mark by which man is distinguished from the beasts; and a strict acquaintance with the manner in which it is composed, becomes, as you follow it a little way, one of the most curious and interesting exercises of the intellect. A perfect knowledge of the classical languages has been fixed upon, and not without good reason, as the mark of a well-educated young man; and though people may have scrambled into distinction without it, it is always with the

greatest difficulty—just like climbing over a wall, instead of giving your ticket at the door. Perhaps you may think another proof of a youth's talents might have been adopted; but what good will arise from your thinking so, if the general practice of society has fixed on this particular branch of knowledge as the criterion? Wheat or barley were as good grain, I suppose, as sesamum; but it was only to sesamum that the talisman gave way, and the rock opened; and it is equally certain, that if you are not a well-grounded grammatical scholar in Greek or Latin, you will in vain present other qualifications to distinction.' It should ever be borne in mind, however, by both preceptor and pupil, first, that to form the mind and heart is the grand object of all education; and secondly, that the instruction afforded in schools is not in itself an end, but simply a *means of acquiring knowledge*. We must accordingly trust more to forming the pupil's taste, instilling into him sound principles—scholastic, religious, and moral—and exciting in him a thirst for information, than to any definite amount of learning we may succeed in communicating to him, while labouring to teach him knowledge, and to store his memory. What is taught at first, too, must be rather a thing of memory than of reason: the mere remembrance of the rule must come first, and the reason of it, and the clear understanding of it, must be left to creep on the mind, as it assuredly will, by degrees. Many of the modern systems, however, are totally opposed to this ancient, and only effective process; and all is now ratiocination and ætiology—in other words, an appeal to powers in the pupil which are not yet developed, and which can scarcely yet be said to exist. The result of this undue species of culture is seen in the showy rather than solid qualities of many of our youth; who resemble those fine flowering geraniums, which the horticulture of our day has by much art produced. Striking and hand-

some indeed they are to the sight; but they are scentless—and, as far as our notion of a geranium goes, worthless. Ascham died, aged 52, 1568.

FRANCIS DRAKE, son of a sailor, was born at Tavistock, Devon, and through his kinsman, Sir John Hawkins, obtained, 1567, the command of the *Judith*, in the navy, such as it was, ships of war being then in private hands; and he distinguished himself in expeditions against the Spaniards in America, 1570 and 1572. He served in Ireland under the earl of Essex; and Elizabeth entered into all his views of attack and discovery. Ever since he had beheld the South Sea from the isthmus of Darien, he had ardently desired to be the first Englishman who should sail upon it; and his credit with the queen, together with his own reputation, rapidly supplied him with the means of undertaking, with five small vessels, and only 164 men, the expedition which has rendered his name so distinguished. Sailing from Falmouth, Dec. 1577, he passed the straits of Magellan, and proceeding along the coast of Chili and Peru, acquired great booty from the Spaniards. He then coasted California and North America in a single ship, as far as the 48th degree; and landing, took possession of the country for Elizabeth, under the name of New Albion. He next boldly crossed the Pacific, and in less than six weeks reached the Molucca isles; and thence, by Java and the Cape of Good Hope, he returned to Plymouth, after a circumnavigation of the globe in 2 years, 10 months, and 20 days. Having brought home a large portion of treasure, this voyage became a subject of much discussion among politicians; and there were not a few who thought the remonstrance of the Spanish ambassador against the sort of expedition very justifiable. On the other hand, as the conduct of the Spaniards themselves in the West Indies gave some countenance to reprisals, the fame and glory which redounded to England from the union of so much gal-

lantry and enterprise finally prevailed; and Elizabeth, in the spring of 1581, sanctioned the conduct of Drake, by dining on board his ship at Deptford, and bestowing on him the honour of knighthood. In 1585, war being declared against Spain, Drake ably conducted an expedition against the Spaniards of the West Indies, and once more returned with great wealth. In 1587, he headed an attack against Cadiz; in 1588, commanded as vice-admiral of England, under lord Howard, in the conflict with the Armada; and died of a fever, brought on by the ill success of a subsequent expedition to the West Indies, at Nombre de Dios, aged 51, 1596. Drake was a great benefactor to the borough of Plymouth, which he represented in parliament, by causing water to be conveyed to it from springs, through a devious course of 20 miles.

JOHN JEWEL, born at Buden, Devon, completed his studies at Merton College, Oxford; and having embraced the reformed opinions, became a popular preacher, and obtained the rectory of Sunningwell. While at college, he had displayed a memory of great power; and could exactly repeat whatever he had written, after one reading. This faculty continued with him through life; and he thus often, during the ringing of the chapel-bell, committed to memory a sermon, which he preached without hesitation. On the accession of Mary, he was expelled his college by the fellows as being a protestant, and retired to Broadgate Hall (Pembroke), where he acted as tutor. But the restorers of the old form did not suffer him long to enjoy security; and fearing their persecution, he renounced protestantism. As, however, his sincerity was suspected, he escaped to the continent, and resided sometime at Strasburg with Peter Martyr. On Mary's death he returned to England, resumed the reformed faith, and for his zeal in spreading its doctrines in the western counties, was made bishop of Salis-

bury, 1560. A subsequent controversy with his opponents originated the bishop's 'Apologia pro Ecclesiâ Anglicanâ,' a work which has long been regarded by a large class as authority on the question between the church of England and that of Rome, and on that respecting the doctrinal sentiments of the fathers of the protestant church of England. The remaining years of Jewel's life were scrupulously devoted to his pastoral duties; and he died of a low fever, while on a visitation tour, in the village of Monkton Farley, Wilts, aged 49, 1571.

CONTEMPORARIES. — *George Buchanan*, born of poor parents in Scotland, joined a French corps of auxiliaries raised for the duke of Albany; but was subsequently enabled to graduate at St. Andrews. Through the patronage of lord Cassilis, he became tutor to James Stuart, natural son of James V.; but his poem styled 'Somnium,' wherein he ridiculed the clergy, occasioned Beatoun to denounce him for heresy, and in a long consequent exile in France and Portugal, he translated into fine Latin the Psalms of David. After Beatoun's death, he returned, and was made principal of St. Leonard's College, and, by Mary of Scots, the preceptor of her son, afterwards our James I. His last years were employed on a history of Scotland, which, though nervous and perspicuous, is deficient in fidelity; Buchanan's fame, therefore, rests on his Latin versification, and deservedly so. He died at Edinburgh, aged 76, 1582. *Paolo Veronese*, born at Verona, became secretary to Grimani, the diplomatist; and going with him to Rome, employed every leisure moment in the study of Raffaele's and Michael Angelo's paintings. Devoting himself henceforth to the art, he soon obtained the title of 'il pittor felice' for his copious and admirable invention, the grandeur and majesty of his compositions, the beauty and perfection of his draperies, and his noble ornaments of architecture. He was wonderfully graceful in his airs of wo-

men, to whose figures he gave the utmost vivacity and ease; and though careless in minor detail, his colouring and chiaroscuro are ever scrupulously correct. He eventually settled at Venice, where he worked for all the great of Europe, and where he died, aged 56, 1588. His *Four Banquets* are now regarded his best works; and the best of those the *Marriage at Cana*. *Titian*, properly *Tiziana Vecelli*, born in Friuli, rose to eminence, under *Bellini* of Venice, as a painter of landscape and the human figure. He is regarded as the father of portrait-painting, as respects grace, likeness, and costume. He chiefly resided at Venice, though he visited the princes of Italy and the pope at their courts, to paint for them; and he died there, aged 96, in great wealth, 1576. *Titian's* best historical works are 'Christ crowned with Thorns,' at Milan, and 'the Last Supper,' in the Escorial. His colouring is allowed to be the best of the old masters; and his only defect is an undue heaviness in the female form, the ladies of Venice, then noted for *embonpoint* and indolence, being his usual models.

Philip Sidney, son of Sir Henry, of Penshurst, Kent, after an education at Christ Church, Oxford, was appointed one of his gentlemen of the bed-chamber by Charles IX. of France. The *Barthélémi*, however, which he witnessed, disgusted him with Paris; and after pursuing his travels to Italy, he returned to England, 1575, and became one of the favourites of Elizabeth. When the queen interfered to prevent his duel with the earl of Oxford, lest he should be killed, he took offence and quitted the court; and at the seat of his brother-in-law, lord Pembroke, Wilton, Wilts, he commenced his '*Arcadia*,' a grave heroic romance in verse and prose, which does credit to his genius. In 1581 he returned to court, joined in the tourneys, and was knighted by Elizabeth; who, even when he had married Sir Francis Walsingham's daughter, wished him to remain about her per-

son, and refused both his joining the expedition of Drake, and his election to the throne of Poland. The utmost distance the queen allowed him to go was Flushing, of which he was made governor; and heading a detachment against the Dutch at Zutphen, under his maternal uncle, Dudley, earl of Leicester, he was wounded by a cannon-ball, which, in a month after, occasioned his death at Arnheim, aged 32, 1586. *Andrea Palladio*, the first architect of modern Italy, was born at Vicenza, and after studying at Rome, established his fame by a series of designs for noble edifices, which have afforded models for many beautiful classical structures in England and other countries. He died at Vicenza, aged 62, 1580; and is now best known by his '*Treatise of Architecture*,' which is to be seen in the dress of most European languages. *Christopher Clavius*, of Bamberg, Germany, entered among the Jesuits, and became celebrated as a mathematician. He was the chief assistant of Gregory XIII. in reforming the calendar; and died, aged 75, 1612. *Michael de Montaigne*, son of the eccentric lord of Montaigne in Perigord, who would not allow his son to speak any other language as an infant than Latin, a tongue which, at eight, he in like manner exchanged for Greek. In neither of those classical dialects, however, did he ever subsequently write; and he is now only known to us by his '*Essays*,' one of the most popular works in the French language, which he published in the leisure of his paternal château. The production embraces, as its title implies, a great variety of topics; and its lively style and agreeable discussion would continually please, but for the sceptical remarks needlessly scattered through its pages. Montaigne died, aged 59, 1592.

John Dee, son of a vintner, was educated at St. John's, Cambridge, and became a fellow of Trinity, in that university. He took holy orders; but his taste for astrology made him enemies, and he retired to the conti-

nent. There he became known (at Louvain) for his 'Lectures on Euclid,' a well-known term for a series of speculations in all the sciences, whether moral or intellectual; the propositions of Euclid being only taken as so many pegs to hang lectures on. Even a proof that spirits could be in heaven and on earth at the same time, was drawn from Euclid (I. 37). In 1551, Dee returned, and received the living of Upton-on-Severn from Cecil; in Mary's reign he was imprisoned 'for practising against the queen's life by enchantments;' but on the accession of Elizabeth, he was at once consulted by lord Dudley respecting 'a propitious day' for the coronation. He was even made the queen's 'intelligencer,' or secret messenger, and received a salary from the secretary of state for that office; and when not employed on the royal errands, he pursued his studies in retirement at Mortlake, Surrey, where the mob, in 1576, destroyed his 'diabolical' instruments. In 1578, the queen being ill, Dee was sent abroad to consult with the German physicians and astrologers concerning her treatment; and in 1581 he openly professed himself an astrologer, and with one Kelly, an apothecary of Worcester, as his assistant, was consulted by persons of all, but especially of the higher, grades. The inquiries of the parties were answered by two 'spirits,' who appeared on a black speculum, and were affirmed to be the angels Gabriel and Raphael. In 1583, the pair accompanied Laski, palatine of Siradia, to Poland; and were introduced to Rodolph, king of Bohemia, and invited by a rich subject of that prince to his castle of Trebona, where they resided some weeks, 'transforming the baser metals into gold.' Dee eventually left Kelly at Trebona, returned to England, and was made warder of Manchester college by Elizabeth, 1595; after holding which post nine years, he retired to his house at Mortlake, where he died in poor circumstances, aged 81, 1608.

Tycho Brahe, born in Denmark, studied astronomy against the will of his family, who regarded the pursuit as beneath his rank. Frederick II. munificently encouraged him, by giving him the isle of Kuen, in the Sound, whereon to build an observatory; but after that king's death, the philosopher was coldly treated by Christiern IV., and harassed by the jealousy of rivals. He therefore in 1590 quitted Kuen for Prague, where the emperor Rodolph II. kindly received him, and where he died, aged 55, 1601. Though great both as an astronomer and chemist, Brahe's talents were wasted in the vain endeavour to establish a new system of the universe, in opposition to that of Copernicus. Preserving the stability of the earth, he made the other planets revolve around the sun—but the sun along with them, like Jupiter and his moons—all thus moving together annually round the earth. 'Had this notion,' says Professor Nichol, '*preceded* the views of Copernicus, it would have been a great step in advance: coming after him, it was an endeavour backwards.'

James Crichton, 'the admirable,' so called for his 'wonderful' knowledge, was descended maternally from king Robert II. He was born at Perth; and at St. Andrew's university ran through the whole circle of the sciences before he was 20. Thus mentally gifted, and possessed of a graceful person, he travelled to Paris; where the president of the college of Navarra, astonished at his disputing in 12 languages, bestowed on him a valuable diamond ring. At the Louvre he, at a tournament in presence of the court, carried away the ring 15 times successively, and broke as many lances. At Rome, Venice, and Padua, he in like manner challenged and triumphed. At Mantua he killed a gladiator, who had foiled the most skilful fencers in Europe, and had recently slain three antagonists; and he bestowed the reward obtained for the exploit on the widows of the three

victims. The duke of Mantua now appointing him tutor to his son, Vincenzo Gonzaga, a youth of dissolute habits, Crichton, to support his fame, wrote a comedy, in which he took 15 different characters; but in the midst of his popularity, he was one night, while playing on the guitar as he sauntered along a street in Mantua, attacked by six men in masks, whom, however, by his skill at fence, he disarmed. The leader falling thereon on his knees, begged his life; and, his mask being removed, he proved to be his own pupil, to whom the astonished Crichton instantly returned his sword, with every apology. The prince, whose motive it is alleged by some, was jealousy in a love affair, hereupon took the weapon, and most perfidiously ran his master through the body, killing him on the spot, in his 23rd year, 1583. A belief prevailed in Italy, that the calamities which subsequently befel the house of Gonzaga, were judgments of the Almighty for so foul a murder.

Geronimo Cardan, of Milan, became celebrated throughout Europe as a physician. In 1552, having been solicited by Hamilton, archbishop of St. Andrews, to visit him in Scotland, and relieve his asthma, which he did, he, on his return home, calculated the nativity of Edward VI. at the court of London; but, astrologer as he professed himself, he predicted a long life to him who died in the next year. Cardan died at Rome, of voluntary starvation, that he might not falsify his prophecy as to the day of his own decease, aged 75, 1578. He had ever been eccentric to the verge of insanity. When free from pain, he was accustomed to excite disagreeable sensations in himself by biting his lips, squeezing his fingers, or whipping his legs, that he might obtain relief from those sallies of imagination, which would else have led him to too great exertion of intellect. His autobiography gives as close and as sickening a history of his sensations and his sins as that of Rousseau:

his other works are on astrology, mathematics, medicine, and morals, in ten volumes folio. As a visionary of the highest class, he had four precious gifts: 1, the power of going out of his own body; 2, that of seeing anything he pleased to call before his eyes; 3, dreams, which nightly foretold him what was to happen to him on the following day; 4, his fingernails, which daily did the same thing. He had, like Socrates, a good demon always visibly attending him; and by means of that spirit he acquired a perfect knowledge of Greek, Latin, Spanish, and French in 24 hours! *Raphael Holingshed*, born in Cheshire, of whom nothing is known beyond his publication, 1577, of *Chronicles*, giving a valuable account of England, Scotland, and Ireland, to his time.

William Cecil, son of the master of the robes, was born at Bourne, Lincolnshire, educated at St. John's, Cambridge, and made secretary of state to Edward VI. by Somerset. In Mary's reign he was often consulted, though he had favoured the cause of the lady Jane; and under Elizabeth he was again secretary, and created lord Burleigh. The general tenor of his policy as Elizabeth's minister was cautious, and rested upon an avoidance of open hostilities, and upon keeping up secret intrigues with opposing parties; a worldly mode of acting, scarcely avoidable in the then relative position of England—with a powerful dissatisfied party at home, much dangerous enmity on the part of catholic Europe, and the existence of a critical alliance between Scotland and France. He was the constant enemy of Mary of Scots to her death, which he promoted; drew up the plan for resisting the Spanish Armada; and died respected for his certainly splendid private character, aged 77, 1598. If Cecil has been severely charged with crooked policy, it should be remembered that there have been few rulers of men who have not, on some occasion, been driven to descend from the high ground of principle to the low

level of expediency. We know no better definition of *whig* and *tory* than to say that the whig either makes no merit of having fixed principles at all, or abandons easily such as he has, to risk everything upon such untried and startling novelties as the host of speculative persons of the day may promulgate; while the tory strives, to the utmost of his power, to conserve and preserve the barrier of those principles, or 'laws to himself,' with which he set out—based as they are upon the experience of his forefathers, on that of history, and upon his own gradually and steadily cultivated judgment. The tory prefers going *through the gate*, to the whig's steeplechase method of reaching the goal.

Maximilian, duc de Sully, was educated with the son of the queen of Navarre, afterwards Henri IV. of France. He escaped the Barthélemy, and had a command in the battles of Coutras, Arques, and Ivry; in which last a detachment of the army of the League surrendered to him, though in a wounded state, and unable to help himself, on finding their cause likely to be lost. He was subsequently engaged in numerous embassies; negotiated the marriage of Henri IV. and Marie de Medici; and concluded a treaty with James I. of England, advantageous to the interests of both countries. He induced Henri to renounce protestantism, in order to quiet his country, and left the court for many years after that king's murder; but was recalled by Louis XIII., and made a marshal. His last days were employed in writing his interesting '*Economies Royales*;' and he died, aged 81, 1641. *Thomas Gresham*, of an ancient Norfolk family, was educated at Gonville (Caius) College, Cambridge, and being devoted by his father to merchandise, was sent by Edward VI., 1551, to Antwerp, to take up money from the Flemish merchants, and settle the trade with the Netherlands. Elizabeth knighted him 1559. Becoming at length extremely wealthy, he devised plans for facilitating the

business of the metropolis; and he induced the corporation to pull down 80 houses on Cornhill, and erect on their site a covered building for the daily assembling of merchants. This edifice Elizabeth opened, 1570, with great ceremony, and gave it the name of the Royal Exchange. At his own cost, Gresham founded 'Gresham College,' London, 1575, with seven professorships, one in each of the sciences of divinity, astronomy, music, geometry, law, physic, and rhetoric. Gunter, Wren, Briggs, and Barrow, were among the early Gresham professors; but the lectures were neglected from 1700 to 1768, in which last year the building was sold to the government for the site of an excise-office. Some attempts were subsequently made to revive the Gresham lectures; and till the fire of 1838, they were read in the apartments of the Royal Exchange. The benevolent founder died at his house in Bishopsgate-street, aged 60, 1570; and his remains were attended to the grave by 100 poor men and 100 poor women, the expenses of the funeral, in that cheap day, amounting to 800*l*.

Thomas Erastus, born at Baden, became physician to the elector-palatine, but is more celebrated for his polemical turn. Contending against 'the real presence' with the divines of Wittemberg, he wrote a book, '*De Excommunicatione Ecclesiasticâ*,' which has obtained for its supporters, catholic and protestant, the title of 'Erastians.' Its leading propositions are a denial of the Church's power to extend its censures beyond this life (striking at the authority of the ordained priest to absolve from sin), together with a support of the civil magistrate's decree in cases of clerical delinquency, in opposition to ecclesiastical punishments. Erastus died, aged 65, 1588. *Simon Symonds*, vicar of Bray, near Maidenhead, Berks, kept his benefice during the reigns of Henry VIII., Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth, by constantly making concessions to the ruling power. He was twice a

protestant, and twice a papist; and when reproached for his apostacy, replied, 'that he had shown his hatred of change, by living under four sovereigns vicar of Bray.' To die vicar of Bray was his maxim, which he did, 1598; and his conduct has now passed into a proverb not very honourable to his name. *John Stow*, bred a tailor, was led by his contemplative occupation to lay plans for a popular history of his country; and archbishop Parker enabled him to print his 'Survey of London,' and his 'Flores Historiarum,' the latter an authentic record of English affairs from the Britons to his own day. Though indefatigable both with needle and pen, Stow died in poverty, aged 80, 1605. *Matthew Parker*, born at Norwich, was educated at Benet (Corpus Christi) College, Cambridge, and became chaplain successively to Anne Boleyn, Henry VIII., and Edward VI. He was chosen master of Corpus, and dean of Lincoln; but, under Mary, he was deprived, as being married. Elizabeth, on her accession, restored him, and made him the second protestant archbishop of Canterbury; and he died, aged 72, 1575. His now best known work is 'The Antiquity of the English Church.' *Conrad Gesner*, born at Zurich, made, with a small pension from the university there, the tour of Europe, and at length became Greek professor at Lausanne. Obtaining a competency, he next practised physic in his native town; where for 24 years he held the chair of philosophy, and where he died of the plague, aged 49, 1565. Gesner was the first to mark the genera of plants by a comparison of their flowers, seeds, and fruits.

Sebastian Castalio, born in Dauphiny, obtained the friendship of Calvin; but was driven from a place in the college of Geneva by that reformer, on account of his opposition to his tenet of predestination. On a charge of stealing wood to make a fire wherewith to warm his starving family, Calvin

and Beza joined to ruin the character of Castalio at Basle, whither he had fled; but he lived there as a teacher and author to the age of 48, when death released him from his anxieties, 1563. He translated the Bible into Latin, a coarse production, which was long, from the rarity of such works, in great estimation. *Giorgio Vasari*, born at Arezzo, became a noted painter under the patronage of the Medici, excelling in architectural delineation. His colouring, however, was defective; and he is now best known by his *Lives of Famous Artists*. So retentive was his memory in youth, that at nine he repeated the whole of the *Æneid*. He died at Florence, aged 62, 1574. *Henry Bullinger*, born at Bengarten, near Zurich, was converted to protestantism by the writings of Melancthon, and after being long the pupil of Zwingle, became pastor of the church at Zurich. He laboured to promote the comfort of the English, who fled to Switzerland during the reign of Mary, wrote against the pope's excommunication of Elizabeth, and died much respected for his benevolent qualities, 1575.

Gabriel Fallopius, professor of anatomy at Pisa, became celebrated by his discovery in the human body of what are from him denominated 'the Fallopian tubes.' He died, aged 72, 1573. *André Vesalæ*, born at Brussels, turning his attention to anatomy, became professor at Padua, 1537, and physician to Charles V. Happening, in his hurry to dissect a patient, to commence the operation before the party (a nobleman) had expired, which he only discovered on perceiving the heart palpitate while removing the flesh above it, the anatomist was seized by the mob, whose superstitious antipathy to dissections was a feature of the age, and would have been put to death but for the interference of the emperor, who saved him from the Inquisition on his engaging to go to the Holy Land. He was hurrying back to take the

chair of medicine at Padua, vacant by the death of Fallopius, when he was wrecked on the coast of Zante, and perished, 1573. *Gerard Mercator*, one of the first printers of maps, devoted his life to publications on geography, and died, aged 82, 1594, at Ruremonde, his native town. The nautical chart known as 'Mercator's Projection' received its name from Mercator's publication of it; but it was the work of Edward Wright, an Englishman. *William Gilbert*, a physician, born at Colchester, discovered some of the properties of the magnet, and had extraordinary reputation on this account on the continent. Elizabeth made him one of her medical establishments; and he died in the same year with her, 1603. *Wilhelm Xylander*, born at Augsburg, became professor of divinity at Heidelberg, and was leader in several conferences of the reformed divines to settle points concerning the Eucharist, &c. He translated a host of Greek authors into Latin, and died, aged 42, 1576. *Peter Baroni*, fled from his native France to England, on account of having embraced protestantism, and was made Margaret professor at Cambridge, 1574. He involved himself in a controversy with Whitacre, Tindal, and others, concerning predestination, and was cited before Whitgift for smoothing down that doctrine, and compelled to quit the university. Lord Burleigh, however, was his friend; and he died under his protection, 1587. *Humphrey Gilbert*, the half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh (his mother, a widow, having married Mr. Raleigh), was educated at Eton and Oxford, and knighted 1570 for his services in Ireland. In 1583 he took possession of Newfoundland for Elizabeth; but in his return from that island, his ship was wrecked, and every soul perished, 1584.

Joseph Scaliger, son of Julius, was born at Agen, and studied at Bordeaux and Paris. From an attention without masters to Greek and Latin, he acquired the title of

'the most learned man of the age;' and was invited to fill the chair of belles letters at Leyden in consequence, 1603, and died there, 1609. While acknowledging him a man of genius, we are justified in asserting that he was one of pretensions also; and his labours to effect good chronological records are chiefly those for which he now deserves mention, as shown in his 'Opus de Emendatione Temporum.' *Bartolomeo Eustachi*, born at San Severino, studied surgery at Rome, and became celebrated, in conjunction with Fallopius and Vesalius, as an anatomist. The Eustachian tube, in the ear, derives its name from him, its discoverer; and his anatomical and medical publications ought to be regarded as laying the foundation of much of the present knowledge in those branches. He died 1574. *Andreas Cæsalpino*, born at Arezzo, became physician to Clement VIII., and displayed very extraordinary insight into the modern discoveries in medicine, anatomy, and botany. That he had already been convinced of the circulation of the blood, as promulgated subsequently by Harvey, is clear; and his view of the mode of improving the quality of plants of every grade, grasses and fruits, is equally precocious. He died at Rome, aged 54, 1603. *Ulysses Aldrovandi*, born at Bologna, was one of the first inquirers into Natural History. He devoted a long life to the search after minerals, plants, and animals of all kinds; and ended his days in an hospital, at the age of 80, and perfectly blind, 1605. Six folio volumes, containing the history of birds and insects, were all that his means allowed him to publish. *Christopher Plantin*, born at Tours, became celebrated as a printer at Antwerp, and published a Polyglott Bible, which obtained him great fame. He acquired considerable wealth; and his liberality is said to have been commensurate with his means. He died, aged 65, 1589.

Justus Lipsius, born at Iscanum, near Brussels, was patronised by

Cardinal Granvellan, a great patron of learned, and especially of youthful men. After a residence in the Capitol, at the cardinal's invitation, Lipsius roved from state to state as a professor, without much power of settling anywhere; and in like manner, he was a protestant at Jena, and a catholic in Brabant, a violent Calvinist at Leyden, and finally a Romanist at Louvain. His commentary on Tacitus is allowed to do him most credit for consistency; and he was arranging a new edition of that work when he died at Louvain, aged 58, 1606. *Martin Hemskirk*, a Dutch painter, visited Rome, and then lived at Haerlem the remainder of his days, dying, 1574, aged 76. His pictures, comprising landscape, domestic scenes, and the human figure, are all deficient in chiaroscuro; but they display ease and fertility of invention, and prove that had the artist lived in more cultivated times, he would have possessed the taste necessary to constitute a name. *Michael Nostradamus*, born at Avignon, quitted the practice of physic at Aix (where he had the credit of checking the progress of the plague by a powder of his own invention) to be an astrologer and prophet, 1554, publishing his peeps into futurity in verse. While some regarded him as a quack and visionary, and others as an impious associate of the devil, Henri II. and queen Catherine de Medici invited him to Paris, and loaded him with honours; and when he had correctly predicted the king's death, he was resorted to at his chateau at Salon by nobles and princes, and died there, revered as a holy person, aged 63, 1563.

Thomas Bodley, born at Exeter, was removed by his parents to Geneva, when Mary's reign commenced. Tinctured with the notions of Calvin, he returned to England on Elizabeth's accession, and was elected fellow of Merton College, Oxford. The queen knighted him; but, taking a disgust at court manners, he resolved

on passing the remainder of his life in retirement, and in expending his fortune on a collection of books, wherewith to enrich his university. In 1597 he apprized the dean of Christ-church of his intention; and in 1610 the first stone of the Bodleian Library was laid, and that building eventually erected (at Bodley's cost), which, by additional funds, must now be regarded as amongst the noblest literary foundations in the world. Sir Thomas did not live to see his design fully completed, his decease occurring at the age of 68, 1612. *Henry Savile*, born at Bradley, Yorkshire, was educated at Merton College, Oxford, and became Greek tutor to princess, afterwards queen, Elizabeth. He was eventually warden of Merton, and provost of Eton; and though knighted by the queen, the death of his son made him resolve on retirement, and he devoted his fortune to the founding of two professorships at Oxford, one in astronomy, and the other in geometry, and died, 1662. He spent 8000*l.* in editing St. Chrysostom's works in Greek, besides giving English translations of Tacitus and other classic authors. *Isaac Casaubon*, born at Geneva, became distinguished as a commentator on Greek authors; and on removing to Paris, Henri IV. (who tried to make him a convert from protestantism, rather that he might have the means of advancing him, than from any anxiety about his faith), had him chosen professor of polite learning in the university there. At the conference between cardinal Du Perron and Du Plessis Mornay, he acted as one of the protestant judges, and decided in favour of the cardinal, which led to an expectation that he had adopted the old religion. On the murder of Henri he came to England, and was exceedingly well received by James, who gave him, though a layman, stalls at Westminster and Canterbury. He died somewhat suddenly, of an affection of the bladder, aged 54, 1614. His wife was the daughter

of Henry Stephens, the learned printer; and by her he had 20 children.

Annibale Caro, born at Civita Nuova, is chiefly known by his spirited translation into Italian of the *Æneid*, pronounced by the Italians to be little inferior to the original. He died at Rome 1566. *Pierre de Ronsard*, born at Vendomois, was page first to the duc d'Orleans, and then to James V. of Scotland. On his return to France, his poetical effusions introduced him at court; and he was the marked favourite of Henri II. and his four successors, Francis II., Charles IX. Henri III. and Henri IV. He died, though a layman, prior of St. Cosma's, the gift of Henri III., 1595. His works consist of odes, elegies, sonnets, hymns, and amorous poems, the latter of no very moral tendency. *Jacopo Tintoretto*, born at Venice, studied under Titian, and was noted for boldness and vivacity of style. He was, of course, careless of outline; but his colouring, the expression of his figures, and the general effect of his productions, have placed him almost on a level with his great master. He died, aged 82, 1594, leaving a son and daughter, both eminent historical painters.

Jacques du Perron, born a Huguenot, became a convert to the old faith on reading the works of Aquinas, and is believed, by his theological disputations at Paris, to have led to the conversion of Henri IV., who made him archbishop of Sens, and induced Clement VIII. to give him a red hat, 1604. He acted long as a diplomatist for Henri, and employed all his leisure in defending the old church; writing against our James I. and the talented Mornay on that subject. The cardinal died at Paris, aged 62, 1618. *Philip de Mornay*, sieur du Plessis, a noble Huguenot, was born at Buhi in Vexin, and joined the army of Henri de Navarre in his war against the League. But when Henri, in order to secure his seat upon the French throne, had made

his public recantation 1593, and reconciled himself to the old church, De Mornay resigned his command, and retired from court, resolved on advocating in quiet the cause of that faith he had so well defended with his sword. In 1598 appeared his most celebrated work, 'A Treatise on the Sacrament of the Eucharist;' and in this he so ably defended the Calvinistic doctrines, as opposed to transubstantiation, that the book made a great noise, and the Huguenots dignified their champion with the title of 'The Huguenot Pope.' Cardinal Du Perron, who had quitted the protestants on account of a different view of the question, was hereupon induced to solicit a public conference with the Sieur; and accordingly, in 1600, the parties met at Fontainebleau, with the royal sanction, and a disputation ensued which, while it as usual confirmed either combatant in his original opinion, induced their respective partisans to glory equally in having an advocate of consummate intelligence and eloquence on their side. Louis XIII. was subsequently unfriendly to De Mornay, whom he deprived of his government of Saumur; soon after which the Sieur died, highly respected for learning and unblemished morals, aged 74, 1623.

The Stephens's, learned printers. *Robert*, born at Paris, was the son of an excellent printer in that capital, and, under the protection of Francis I., published a Latin Testament, and then a Hebrew Bible, and Greek Testament, much to the offence of the Parisian divines. He became the friend of Calvin and Beza on being compelled to fly to Geneva, where he died, 1559. *Henry*, son of Robert, was born at Paris 1528, and regarded as the best Greek scholar of his day. When his father quitted Paris for Geneva, to avoid religious persecution, he continued in the capital, and published a series of the Greek classics under the patronage of Henri III. The troubles of the country, however, at length compelled Henry

to remove to Geneva; and there he expended vast labour and much money in the completion of a Greek Thesaurus, which Scapula, the printer, meanly compressed into a Lexicon, and published as his own, before the work of Stephens was ready. As the Lexicon sold, Stephens was ruined; and he died in poverty, in a hospital at Lyons, 1598.

SOVEREIGNS.—**TURKEY.**—1520, Suleiman II.; 1566, Selim II.; 1574, Morad III.; 1595, Mohammed III.; 1603, Ahmed I. **POPES.**—1555, Paul IV.; 1559, Pius IV.; 1566, St. Pius V.; 1572, Gregory XIII.; 1585, Sixtus V.; 1590, Urban VII. and Gregory XIV.; 1591, Innocent IX.; 1592, Clement VIII. **SCOTLAND.**—1542, Mary Stuart; 1567, James VI. **FRANCE.**—1547, Henri II.; 1559, Francis II.; 1560, Charles IX.; 1574, Henri III.; 1589, Henri IV. **SWEDEN.**—1523, Gustavus I. (Vasa); 1560, Eric XIV.; 1568, John III.; 1592, Sigismund III. **DENMARK AND NORWAY.**—1534, Christiern III.; 1559, Frederick II.;

1588, Christiern IV. **PORTUGAL.**—1557, Sebastian; 1578, Henry I.; 1580, subdued by Spain. **GERMANY.**—1556, Ferdinand I.; 1564, Maximilian II.; 1576, Rodolphus II. **SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.**—1555, Philip II.; 1598, Philip III. **POLAND.**—1548, Sigismund II.; 1573, Henri de Valois, first elective king; 1576, Henry Battori and Ann Jagello; 1587, Sigismund III. of Sweden. **RUSSIA.**—1533, Ivan IV. first czar; 1584, Feodor I. (Ivanowitz), last of the house of Ruric; 1598, Boris Godonov, usurper. **NAVARRIE.**—1555, Joan d'Albret, and Antoine de Bourbon; 1572, Henri de Bourbon; 1589, united to France by the accession of Henri de Bourbon to that throne, as Henri IV. **NETHERLANDS.**—1578, William I. of Nassau; 1584, Maurice. **PERSIA.**—1523, Tamasp I.; 1576, Ismail II.; 1577, Mohammed Mirza; 1585, Abbas the Great. **DELHI.**—1556, Akber. **HUNGARY.** 1527, Ferdinand I. emperor; 1564, Maximilian II. emperor; 1572, Rodolph II. emperor.

REIGN CLXIV.

JAMES I., KING OF ENGLAND, FIRST OF THE HOUSE OF STUART.

1603 TO 1625—22 YEARS. .

PERSONAL HISTORY.—James I. was son of Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, and queen Mary of Scotland, and was born at Edinburgh castle, June 1566, when his mother was at variance with her husband. He was of the middle stature, inclining to corpulency: his forehead was high, his beard scanty. His address was awkward; and he had less of manly dignity than had been usually seen amongst English sovereigns. He was temperate in habits, kind to his servants, and desirous of acquiring the love of his subjects. He was commonly averse from cruelty and injustice; and therefore his conduct to the great Raleigh stands forth an anomalous point in his character. To Raleigh he was highly cruel, highly unjust; and it affords us no very exalted notion of James's magnanimity, when we find that a vast portion of his enmity to that talented person was produced by the knight's strenuous attempts to introduce the use of tobacco, in defiance of the king's celebrated 'Counterblast,' which still remains to illustrate the fact. He was not destitute either of abilities or good intentions; but his abilities were not those of a king, and his intentions were too often defeated by pliability and unmanly attachments. His reign was prosperous, because peace was his

main object ; but his country lost ground in the opinion of other nations, and her influence over them was much lessened. He received much adulation for his literary acquirements ; but he merits far more as an encourager of learning. He regarded wit as the sure evidence of ability ; and even attacks upon himself, if seasoned with that quality, he not only pardoned, but took in good part. His love of witty preachers was proverbial ; of which a single instance must now suffice. A young divine, whose lively sermons had induced a courtier to name him to the king, was commanded by the latter to preach before him, at a moment when it was supposed he was balancing in his mind whether he should make concessions to his catholic subjects. The wit obeyed, and took for his text the following startling words : ‘ James first and sixth, nothing wavering ! ’ ‘ Gracious ! ’ cried the king aloud, ‘ he is at me already ! ’ but instead of taking offence, he sat out the discourse, expressed his delight at the doctrine, and eventually promoted the preacher. Perhaps much of the weakness of James’s character was attributable to the commencement of his life. Constantly kept in doubt as to the security of his Scottish throne, the attachment of his advisers, and the loyalty of his people, who were divided by two religions, and harassed by factions, he was led to conceal his opinions, and to act without candour. In the stormy times which followed his mother’s marriage with Bothwell, he had been, as an infant, committed to the care of the earl of Mar ; and his mother being compelled to resign the crown, all public acts henceforth ran in his name. His childhood, therefore, was passed in commotion, and even civil war, under the regencies of Murray, Mar, and Morton ; during which time he resided in Stirling castle, under the tuition of Buchanan. From the first he appears to have imbibed those exalted notions of royal prerogative, which proved so great a snare to his posterity. Some injudicious measures, in the spirit of these opinions, early produced a conspiracy of the nobles against him ; and in 1582 they seized his person at Ruthven castle. A new confederacy, however, effected his liberation ; and he again put himself under the sway of his favourite, the earl of Arran. The policy of Elizabeth, whose apprehensions from the catholics in favour of Mary led her to employ every art to keep up a dissatisfied party in Scotland, was signally assisted by the violent measures of Arran against the connexions of the recent conspirators, many of whom fled to England. When, however, it became apparent that the life of his mother was in danger from the sentence of an English judicature, James, who had hitherto treated her very irreverently, felt himself called upon to interfere. He wrote a menacing letter to Elizabeth, appealed to other courts, and assembled his nobles, to prevent that queen’s injustice. When the news of his parent’s death arrived, he prepared for hostilities ; but so poor were his resources, that he found it requisite to remain at peace, to reconcile the feuds of his nobility, and even to aid Elizabeth in her resistance to Philip and his armada. The Scots entered into a solemn covenant, on this occasion, to support the cause of protestantism. In 1600 happened the Gowrie conspiracy, as related in the Scottish history. James married Anne, daughter of Frederick II. of Denmark and Norway ; and though he had by her seven children, two alone survived him. Robert, Margaret, Mary, and Sophia, all died very young ; and Henry Frederick, prince of Wales, only lived to 18. The survivors were *Elizabeth*, married to Frederick V. count-palatine, of the Rhine, and king of Bohemia 1613, whose daughter Sophia was the mother of George I. ; and *Charles I.*

POLITICAL HISTORY.—The king of Scotland was received with universal acclamations on his arrival in London, April 1603. There was something elevating to the pride of the people, when they saw their ancient enemy conquered, as it were, against his will, his country added to their own, and his

own throne left desolate for the superior splendour of their's. It was in truth a virtual abdication of the Scottish crown, when James thus removed the seat of government from his country; and it may be affirmed that his ancient people's love for his family declined from that period, as will be seen in their betrayal of his son Charles, and in their disinclination, as a body, to support the cause of James II. and his descendants. After the tyrannical rule of the Tudors, the English nobility considered a character such as that of James would enable them to resume their former authority; and that, as he had been educated without state, he would be compelled to bow to the superior breeding of his new subjects. One of his first acts was to bestow a profusion of honours and titles on both Scots and English; and no less than 237 persons received the honour of knighthood alone in six weeks. A pasquinade was hereupon affixed to St. Paul's, in which an art was promised to be taught, very necessary to assist frail memories in retaining the names of the new nobility. The king next exhibited his skill in theological dispute, by deciding the controversy between the bishops of the English church and the leading puritans. Having assembled the parties at Hampton Court, he boldly declared that, as the destruction of episcopacy would endanger the monarchy, he should give as little aid to puritanism, either in England or Scotland, as was possible. He displayed a degree of authority in the presence of his first parliament which that assembly had little anticipated; and as he carried one or two measures of some importance to his prerogative, he was ever afterwards looked upon by the commons with jealousy.

In the year after his accession a plan was organized to dethrone him, and place the lady Arabella Stuart, his relative, in his stead: the detection of this conspiracy, and its fatal consequences to Sir Walter Raleigh, will be found in the domestic events. Although James had behaved with so much consideration for the Scottish catholics, that it was very generally supposed he was secretly a professor of the ancient faith, his rigorous conduct to the Romanists in England, notwithstanding his solemn promise to deal with them leniently, occasioned the most injured portion of them to form a second conspiracy against him; and the 'gunpowder plot' was the result, 1605. The providential escape of the king and parliament from that revengeful snare is recorded elsewhere. In 1611 James showed his inclination for polemics, by haughtily remonstrating with the Dutch republic for permitting the Arminian Vorstius to hold a chair in one of their universities; and gloried in at length obtaining the unimportant point of his removal. His conduct in relation to Ireland soon after, displayed him in a better light; and as the legislator of that country, he framed a code which did infinite honour to his judgment and capacity. He abolished many absurd customs and laws, substituting English ones in their place; declared the people free citizens; and gave them a regular administration both military and civil.

In 1612 the king lost his eldest son, Henry, prince of Wales, at the age of eighteen, a youth of great promise; and in the next year he gave his daughter Elizabeth in marriage to the elector-palatine; an eventful match, which, in a century, presented another dynasty to the British throne. About this time, the object of the foolish passion of James for handsome favourites and advisers, without regard to virtue or abilities, was Robert Carr, a Scots youth, whom he raised from a court page to the earldom of Somerset. The scandalous murder of Sir Thomas Overbury, 1613, by the machinations of this minion and his infamous countess, put an end to the king's partiality; though, without regard to justice, he executed the agents of the horrible assassination, and pardoned the principals. The fate of Somerset paved the way for the similar rise of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham; who went beyond Carr, both in favour, and the rewards attached to it.

But no circumstance in this reign operated more to the king's discredit, than the treatment received by Raleigh. (*See Raleigh's Conspiracy*). James is affirmed to have acted thus harshly to conciliate the Spaniards, whom Raleigh had incensed by his Guiana expedition; and, as prince Charles was to be united to the infanta of Spain, the king hoped so great a sacrifice would insure that important object. The marriage, however, did not take place; and the close of the reign was signalized by those violent contests between the king and parliament, which prepared mighty evils for his successor. James was also much disquieted by the misfortunes of his son-in-law, the elector-palatine; who, having been induced to accept the crown of Bohemia, and to head the protestant interests in Germany, was stripped of his dominions by the emperor, 1620. Urged by the national feeling towards the protestant cause, the king in 1624 declared war against both Spain and the emperor, and sent over troops to Holland to act in conjunction with prince Maurice; and intelligence of the defeat of this force in the next year is supposed to have brought on James a fever, of which he died, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, March 27, 1625. He was buried in Westminster Abbey

EVENTS.

RALEIGH'S CONSPIRACY.—This attempt to place lady Arabella Stuart on the throne occurred 1604, and is called Raleigh's plot, although lord Grey, a puritan, lord Cobham, a man of no principle, and Watson and Clarke, catholic priests, were the leaders; and Cobham alone accused the knight of being privy to the conspiracy, a charge which that dishonourable lord soon retracted. Coke, the famous lawyer, then attorney-general, loaded Raleigh with abuse, because he had been Essex's rival; but he owned, when the jury pronounced him guilty, that he had only charged him with having been *aware* of the plot, and of keeping it secret. The two priests and lord Cobham's brother, Mr. Broke, were executed; Cobham, Grey, and Markham were pardoned, after they had laid their heads upon the block; and Raleigh was reprieved, but ordered into confinement. (*See Memoir of Raleigh.*)

THE GUNPOWDER PLOT, (1605).—It is impossible for one who has not been a student of history, who has not been imbued by reading and reflection with the spirit of the Reformation, who has not taken the pains to acquaint himself with the differences on the score of religion which pervaded nearly every family in the kingdom at the time of that change, and to ascertain the ratio of cultivation of

mind as respects the better classes of English society at the moment of Elizabeth's decease, so as to be able to contrast it with that of the mass of the people, including the middle and lower classes,—it is impossible, we repeat, for such an one to approach the subject of the gunpowder-plot, and other stratagems resorted to by those involved in the then religious disputes, without being carried away by prejudice and passion, and originating, if he write, a narration considerably wide of the truth. During the latter years of Elizabeth's reign, the protestant party had gained the ascendant sufficiently to enact laws of the greatest severity against the catholics. We use the latter term according to the vulgar but erroneous acceptation. Not only were the catholics forbidden to use the ceremonies of their faith, but they were required to attend the service of the reformed church every Sunday, or, in default of such attendance, to pay first 20*l.*, then 60*l.*, for every lunar month during which they absented themselves. Every priest who said mass, and every person who heard it, was liable to a fine of 100 marks, and a year's imprisonment. The facts that James I. was born of catholic parents, had been baptized by a catholic archbishop, and had approved several of the ordinances of the Ro-

mish church, gave to the catholics, at his accession, hopes of a revival of their liberties. At first indeed it appeared that their wishes would be realized, and the severity used towards them relaxed; for the fines paid by the recusants, which in the last year of Elizabeth had amounted to 10,333*l.*, in the second year of James's reign were little more than 200*l.* James, however, was no sooner firmly seated, than he disappointed all their expectations. In February, 1604, he assured his council that 'he had never any intention of granting toleration to the catholics; that he would fortify the laws against them, and cause them to be put into execution to the utmost.' Upon this, the fines were levied with the former severity, and the penal laws of Elizabeth were again in full force, accompanied by still more exasperating regulations. Many persons of high family, who had been incarcerated by Elizabeth for inability to pay their fines, still lingered in the gaols, while many had died therein. Sir Thomas Tresham had been for 24 years mulcted 260*l.* per year for recusancy, or, in other words, for refusing to attend a protestant place of worship on the Sabbath; Edward Rookwood, proprietor of Euston Hall, Suffolk, who had entertained Elizabeth herself at his mansion, had been thrown into prison by her soon after that event on account of his faith, and had died there 1598; Thomas Throckmorton, head of the ancient family of that name, had seen his estate reduced by continual fines on the same account, and was for many years in gaol. Numerous other examples of penal severity might be instanced; but these will be sufficient to explain why the parties concerned in the infamous conspiracy we are about to describe came together. The causes of and the actors in the gunpowder-plot have been alike comparatively unknown and misunderstood; and it should be borne in mind that the latter, instead of being low sanguinary ruffians, as commonly repre-

sented, were principally men of family; and in place of being the paid hirelings of the English catholics at large, were a party acting for themselves—and who would probably never have contemplated the atrocious deed in which they engaged, but for the grievous persecution they had undergone. Robert Catesby, son of Sir William Catesby, had for a mother the sister of Thomas Throckmorton, before named; and he first suggested the measure. He, in common with other catholics, had supported the insurrection of Essex, who had promised toleration; and being taken prisoner in that affair, he purchased his release with 3000*l.* He disclosed his scheme to John Wright, of a high and persecuted family in Yorkshire; and then to Thomas Wintour, his own relation, and an accomplished scholar. The three met at Lambeth in Lent, 1604; when Catesby plainly told Wintour 'his plan was to blow up the parliament-house; for,' said he, 'in that place they have done us all the mischief; and perchance God hath designed that place for their punishment.' Wintour hesitating, Catesby observed 'the nature of the disease deserves so sharp a remedy;' and he succeeded in removing his scruples, by telling him, that 'in order to leave no peaceable way untried,' Wintour should go to the constable of Castile, Velasco, (then in Flanders, on his way to England, to conclude a peace between James and the king of Spain,) and urge him to solicit James to recall the penal laws, and admit the catholics into the rank of his other subjects. Wintour accordingly crossed to Flanders, talked with Velasco, received full assurance of the good feelings of the king of Spain towards the English catholics, but was told that no hope could be given that any decided stipulation in their favour would be included in the treaty. While in Flanders, Wintour met with Guido Fawkes, of a good family in Yorkshire, who had enlisted as a soldier of fortune in the Spanish army, and

had been present at the taking of Calais by the archduke Albert, 1598. He is described by father Greenway (a catholic priest implicated in the plot, who escaped to Rome, and who knew all the conspirators) as 'a man of great piety, of exemplary temperance, of mild and cheerful demeanour, an enemy to broils, a faithful friend, and remarkable for his perpetual attendance upon religious observances. His society (continues the father) was sought by the most distinguished in the archduke's camp for nobility and virtue.' A few days after Wintour's return, Thomas Percy, confidential steward to his relative, the earl of Northumberland (who, at the moment of James's accession, had received from the monarch a promise to repeal the severe enactments of Elizabeth), was admitted a conspirator; and after him Robert Keyes, the only one of the party who had no object but emolument; John Grant, an accomplished but moody gentleman of Warwickshire, on whom also persecution had done its work; Robert Wintour, a brother of Thomas; Sir Everard Digby, of Dryslake, Rutlandshire, an enthusiastic catholic; Ambrose Rookwood, cousin of Edward, who has been so cruelly treated by Elizabeth; and Thomas Tresham, son of sir Thomas before mentioned.

The conspirators having met, upon the return of Wintour with Faux, to decide whether Catesby's plan should be adopted, Percy suggested that it would be enough to kill the king. Catesby, however, observed that 'if the king were killed, the nobility, gentry, and parliament, being infected with the same heresy, would raise to the throne another prince equally determined on their fall.' He therefore proposed laying a train of gunpowder beneath the building in which the houses met; and to appoint a few, on whom reliance could be placed, to ignite the same, after hiring a vault, which ran under the hall of assembly, and was then occupied by a coal dealer. His pro-

posal being assented to, the vault was hired, and 36 barrels of powder were conveyed into it by night; and when the whole had been covered with faggots, the doors of the cellar were flung boldly open, and people were allowed to enter, as if nothing dangerous were there. It is remarkable that all this took place nearly a year and a half before the day on which the parliament was appointed to assemble; and that, although more than 20 persons were intrusted with the secret, no fear of detection or punishment, and no hope of reward, had induced any one of the conspirators to make a discovery of the plot. A wish to save, however, such of the catholic lords as might attend the parliament, induced Tresham, only ten days before the opening, to advise lord Monteagle, by an anonymous epistle, of the danger which would attend his appearance in his place. Monteagle, not knowing how to interpret the letter, took it to Cecil, the secretary of state, and that lord carried it to the king.

James, with a sagacity peculiar to him, at once conjectured the nature of the plot; and so sure was he that gunpowder was to be employed, that instant search was commanded to be made in the cellars alluded to. The earl of Suffolk found large piles of faggots in the place, and a man standing in a corner, with a dark lantern, who said he was Percy's servant, and that the wood was the property of his master, and to be consumed in his fires during the winter. Suffolk quitted the cellar without remark, and, at two o'clock on the morning of Nov. 5th, 1605, sent Sir Thomas Knevet, a justice of peace, with proper assistants, to make further search. They found the same man (the celebrated Guy Fawkes) standing before the door of the vault; and soon discovered the barrels of powder. On seizing Fawkes, matches for firing the train were found in his pocket; whereupon he boldly expressed his regret 'that he had lost the opportunity of sweetening his

own death by that of his enemies.' He was instantly carried to the palace, and questioned in the king's bedchamber, where all parties appear to have been afraid of him, helpless as he was, so unchanged was his countenance, and so fearlessly scornful his replies and bearing. He avowed his purpose, was sorry it had failed, but would give no information as to his accomplices. The king asked him 'How he could have the heart to destroy so many innocent souls?' 'Dangerous diseases,' he replied, 'require desperate remedies.' A Scots courtier inquiring why he had collected so many barrels of gunpowder, he answered, 'To blow back Scotsmen into Scotland.' Though tortured on the following days, he betrayed not a single secret, confessing nothing but that which it was useless to conceal. On the arrest of Fawkes, such of the conspirators as were at the time in London fled to Dunchurch, to meet Catesby; and the whole party, having confessed themselves to Hammond a priest, received absolution, partook of the sacrament, and rode on to lord Windsor's at Hewell. From this house they took a quantity of armour and weapons, and by night reached the residence of Stephen Lyttleton, called Holbeach-house, two miles from Stourbridge; where Walshe, high sheriff of Worcestershire, arrived early on the following morning, with a competent force. The party in the house, finding their condition desperate, determined to fight resolutely to the last; treating the summons to surrender with contempt, and defying their pursuers. A singular accident, however, put an end to all conference. Some gunpowder belonging to the conspirators had been placed in a pan near the fire to dry, and a spark igniting it, a great explosion ensued, the house was much shattered, and Catesby, Rookwood, and Grant were severely wounded; but the most remarkable circumstance was, that 16 pounds of powder, which had been lying in a bag under the

pan in question, fell in the courtyard, amongst the assailants, without exploding. Walshe then ordered a general assault on the house; when Thomas Wintour was wounded, the two Wrights shot dead, and Rookwood again much hurt. Catesby and Percy were soon after struck dead at the same instant: and the rest surrendered to the sheriff. These, seven in number, (Sir Everard Digby, the two Wintours, Rookwood, Grant, Keyes, and Bates) were carried to London, and in Jan. 1606 put, together with Fawkes, on their trial. On this occasion, not a single witness was orally examined, the evidence consisting entirely of the written depositions of the prisoners; and nothing appeared to implicate the great body of the English catholics. Sir Everard Digby even pathetically lamented that the priests universally had looked upon the undertaking as sinful, 'though I,' said he, 'would have sacrificed everything in the good cause.' The conspirators pleaded generally, in extenuation of their crime, the sufferings they had undergone on account of their faith, the violated promise of the king, their despair of legal relief, their dread of still harsher treatment, and their desire to establish that religion which they believed alone to be the true one. Four were executed at St. Paul's on the 30th Jan., and the remaining four in Old Palace-yard on the 31st—all repenting of their purpose, but all meeting death with calmness and fortitude.

One of the most curious documents in the State-paper Office is the series of interrogatories prepared by King James for the examination of Guido Fawkes, Nov. 6, 1605, entirely in that king's hand-writing, lately transcribed for the first time by Mr. Cooper, as follows. 'This examine wolde nou be maid to ansoure to formall interrogatours: 1. As quhat he is, for I can never yett heare of any man that knowis him. 2. Quhaire he vas born. 3. Quhat vaire his parents names. 4. Quhat aage he is of. 5. Quhaire

he hath lived. 6. How he hath lived, and by quhat trade of lyfe. 7. How he ressavd those woundes in his breste. 8. If he was ever in service with any other before Percie, and quhat they vaire, and how long. 9. How he came in Percies service, by quhat meanes, and at quhat tyme. 10. Quhat tyme was this house hyred by his maister. 11. And how soone after the possessing of it did he beginne to his devillishe preparations. 12. Quhen and quhaire lernid he to speake Frenshe. 13. Quhat gentle womans letter it was that was founde upon him. 14. And quhairfor doth sho give him an other name in it then he gives to him self. 15. If he was ever a Papist, and if so, quho brocht him up in it. 16. If other wayes, how was he convertid, quhaire, quhen, and by quhom. This course of his lyfe I ame the more desyrrouse to know, because I have dyvers motives leading me to suspecte that he hath remained long beyonde the seas, and ather is a preiste, or hath long servid some preiste or fugitive abroad; for I can yett, (as I saide in the beginning heiroyf,) meite with no man that knowis him. The letter founde upon him gives him another name, and those that best knowis his maister, can never remember to have seene him in his companie; quhaire-upon it shoulde seeme that he hath been recommendit by some personnis to his maister's service only for this use, quhairin only he hath servid him; and thairfore he volde also be asked in quhat company and shipp he went out of Englande, and the porte he shipped at; and the lyke questions wolde be asked anent the forme of his returne. As for these tromperie waires founde upon him, the signification and use of everie one of thaim wolde be knowin, and quhat I have observid in thaim the bearare vill show you. Nou laste ye remember of the crewallie villanouse pasquil that rayled upon me for the name of Brittain, if I remember richt, it spake something of harvest, and prophesied my destruction about that tyme; ye

may thinke of this, for it is like to be the labour of suche a desperate fellow as this is: if he ville not other wayes confesse, the gentler tortours are to be first usid unto him, and sic per gradus ad ima tenditur, and so God speede your goode worke.

JAMES R.

THE PRINCE'S VISIT TO SPAIN.—In 1623, a marriage having been projected between Catarina, sister of Philip IV. of Spain, and Charles, prince of Wales, the favourite Buckingham observed to James, that how-ever accomplished the infanta, it would be well for the prince to secure her affections by the unexpected gallantry of a visit to her at Madrid. Proposing himself as the prince's companion in the romantic excursion, he declared he should be able to bring over Olivarez, the Spanish minister, to negotiate for the restoration of the palatinate to the king's son-in-law. James assented to the project when named to him; but in a few hours after, with his usual caution, reflecting that if any thing happened to his only son, the princes of Europe would ridicule a king, who, at his years, could entrust the heir of his crown, the prop of his age, to the discretion of foreigners, without so much as providing the frail security of a safe conduct in his favour, sent again for Buckingham, and told him he had changed his mind. The importunities, and almost threats, of the insolent favourite, together with the disappointment of the prince, who, on hearing his father oppose the journey, burst into tears, at length induced James again to assent; and it was agreed that Sir Francis Cottington, the prince's secretary, and Endymion Porter, a gentleman of the bedchamber, should accompany Charles and Buckingham to Spain. Cottington being in the ante-chamber at the moment, was called in by order of James, who began by saying, 'Cottington, thou art an honest man, and I am going to trust to thee an affair of the highest importance. Here are baby Charles and Stenny (these ridiculous

appellations he usually gave to the prince and Buckingham, who have a great mind to go post into Spain, and fetch home the infanta: they will have but two more in their company, and have chosen you for one. 'What think you of the journey?' Sir Francis, who was a prudent man, and had resided some years in Spain as the king's agent, was struck with all the obvious objections to such an enterprise, and scrupled not to declare them. The king threw himself on his bed, and cried, 'I told you this before;' and fell into a new passion, and new lamentations, complaining 'that he was undone, and should lose baby Charles.' Notwithstanding this scene, Buckingham, by a volley of reproaches levelled at Cottington, gained his point; and the issue was, that the prince and Buckingham, with their two attendants, and Sir Richard Graham, master of horse to Buckingham, passed disguised and undiscovered through France. They even ventured into a court ball at Paris, where Charles saw the princess Henrietta, whom he afterwards espoused, and who was at that time in the bloom of youth and beauty. In eleven days after their departure from London, they arrived at Madrid, and surprised every body by a step so unusual among great princes. King Philip immediately paid Charles a visit, expressed the utmost gratitude for the confidence reposed in him, and made warm protestations of a correspondent confidence and friendship. By the most studious civilities he showed the respect which he bore to his royal guest. He gave him a golden key which opened all his apartments, that the prince might, without any introduction, have access to him at all hours; he took the left hand of him on every occasion, except in the apartments assigned to Charles; for there he said the prince was at home. Charles was introduced into the palace with the same pomp and ceremony that attends the kings of Spain on their coronation; the council received public orders to obey him

as the king himself; Olivarez too, though a grandee of Spain, who has the right of being covered before his own king, would not put on his hat in the prince's presence. All the prisons were thrown open, and all the prisoners received their freedom, as if an event the most honourable and most fortunate had happened to the monarchy; and every sumptuary law with regard to apparel was suspended during Charles's residence in Spain. The infanta, however, was only shown to her lover in public; the Spanish ideas of decency being so strict as not to allow of any further intercourse till the arrival of the dispensation from Rome; a document which had no sooner been granted by Gregory XV., than that pontiff died. Upon this event, the nuncio refused to deliver the dispensation till it should have been renewed by the new pope, Urban VIII.; and that crafty personage delayed ratifying the grant, with the hope that, during Charles's residence at Madrid, some expedient might be fallen upon to effect his conversion. The king of England, as well as the prince, became impatient. On the first hint, Charles obtained permission to return; and Philip graced his departure with all the circumstances of elaborate civility and respect which had attended his reception. He even erected a pillar on the spot where they took leave of each other, as a monument of mutual friendship; and the prince, having sworn to the observance of all the articles, entered on his journey, and embarked on board the English fleet at St. Andero. The character of Charles, composed of decency, reserve, modesty, sobriety, virtues so agreeable to the manners of the Spaniards; the unparalleled confidence which he had reposed in their nation; the romantic gallantry which he had practised towards their princess; all these circumstances, joined to his youth and advantageous figure, had endeared him to the whole court of Madrid, and impressed the most favourable ideas of him. But, in the

same proportion that the prince was beloved and esteemed, was Buckingham despised and hated. His behaviour, composed of English familiarity, and French vivacity; his sallies of passion, his indecent freedoms with the prince, his dissolute pleasures, his arrogant and impetuous temper, which he neither could, nor cared to disguise; qualities like these could most of them be esteemed nowhere, but to the Spaniards were the objects of peculiar aversion. They could not conceal their surprise, that such a youth could intrude into a negotiation now conducted to a period by so accomplished a minister as Bristol, and could assume to himself all the merit of it. They lamented the infanta's fate, who must be approached by one whose temerity seemed to respect no laws, divine or human. And when they observed that he had the imprudence to insult the Condé-duke of Olivarez, their prime minister, every one, who was ambitious of paying court to the *Spanish*, became desirous of showing a contempt for the *English* favourite. The duke of Buckingham told Olivarez, that his own attachment to the Spanish nation and to the king of Spain was extreme; that he would contribute to every measure which could cement the friendship between England and them; and that his peculiar ambition would be to facilitate the prince's marriage with the infanta. 'But,' he added, with a sincerity equally insolent and indiscreet, 'with regard to you, sir, in particular, you must not consider me as your friend, but must ever expect from me all possible enmity and opposition.' The Condé-duke replied, with a becoming dignity, 'that he very willingly accepted of what was proffered him;' and on these terms the favourites parted. Buckingham, sensible how odious he had become to the Spaniards, and dreading the influence which that nation would naturally acquire after the arrival of the infanta, resolved to employ all his credit to prevent the marriage; but

by what arguments he could engage the prince to offer such an insult to the Spanish nation, from whom he had met with such generous treatment, by what colours he could disguise the ingratitude and imprudence of such a measure, are totally unknown. It is only certain, that soon after the prince's return, the treaty with Spain was broken off; and it has been facetiously observed, that all that England gained by Charles's trip was the introduction of slashed doublets, which kept their ground in the better circles till the Revolution.

THE SCOTTISH COUNTIES.—By the accession of James to the English throne, the 33 Scottish counties became part and parcel of the British empire. They are, — 10 *Northern*: Orkney, Caithness, Ross, Nairne, Cromartie, Inverness, Sutherland, Aberdeen, Murray (Moray, or Elgin), Banff. 9 *Middle*: Angus, Argyll, Perth, Mearne (or Kincardine), Dumbarton, Stirling, Clackmannan, Kinross, Fife. 14 *Southern*: Peebles, Linlithgow, Kirkcudbright, Selkirk, Dumfries, Renfrew, Bute, Lanark, Berwick, Roxburgh, Edinburgh, Haddington, Ayr, Wigtown.

SCOTCH EPISCOPAL CHURCH ESTABLISHED, 1610.—From the Reformation till this period, the state of church-government in Scotland had been in a very fluctuating condition. James I., however, in 1610, re-established episcopacy, which was again destroyed during the troubles of Charles I. by the puritans, and again restored by Charles II.; after which, until the Revolution, it continued to be the established form of the Scottish church. William III. then, on the refusal of its bishops to recognise his authority, again abolished it, substituting presbytery as the legal form of ecclesiastical rule. For a century after this period, the prelates and clergy of the deprived church, who were usually called *non-jurors*, for their refusal to take the oaths of allegiance to William, were considered disaffected persons; especially

as they objected to pray for the king by name in their places of worship. Though doomed, for this their conscientious attachment to their ancient kings, to suffer every species of deprivation, to their honour be it recorded, that during the attempts of the Pretenders in 1715 and 1745, they remained neutral, and fomented no disturbances. They, however, diminished in number, from 14 to six bishops, and from 900 to 60 clergy; and these in 1788, on the death of the young Pretender, submitted to the house of Brunswick. In 1792, through the steady exertions of Sir James Allan Park, Dr. Gaskin, and Mr. Stevens (its voluntary London committee of patrons), this remnant was permitted, by a bill in parliament, to assemble for the purposes of public worship, and to resume all ecclesiastical privileges, without fear of molestation or imprisonment; a pure branch of the primitive apostolic church, which, under the protecting care of its very estimable though ill-rewarded prelates, is now gradually extending its roots.

HERETICAL BURNINGS.—In two instances James acted in the persecuting spirit of his day: Bartholomew Leggatt, accused of denying Christ's divinity, was burned in Smithfield; and Edward Whiteman, for a similar offence, at Litchfield, 1611. Both these men were offered their pardon, says Stowe, when at the stake, if they would recant; but they refused.

THE WHIG AND TORY FACTIONS first rose in the parliament of 1621. The tory party, or supporters of monarchy and episcopacy, were so designated by their opponents, because the term *tory* was applied to a papist banditti then ravaging Ireland, the word being purely Irish, and signifying 'freebooter.' The upholders of monarchy, in revenge, called their assailants *whigs*, as the puritanical party in Scotland, who preached sedition in the fields, and lived on the poorest diet, were then nicknamed, from the word *whay*, which was their

common drink, obtained from the farm-houses. In Charles I.'s time, these two factions became highly notorious under the titles of *cavaliers* and *roundheads*; and in very recent times they have revived, the modern whigs favouring popular ascendancy, and the tories that of the king, nobility, and the other wealthy or educated branches of the nation.

LONDON LIFE.—James, finding an inclination among his nobility to prefer a London residence to living on their estates, enforced a law of Elizabeth's, which restrained the building of goodly houses in the city. He would often say to the gentry, 'Sirs, at London you are like ships in a sea, which show like nothing; but in your country villages you are like ships in a river, which look like great things.' Notwithstanding this, the increase of arts, pleasures, and social commerce, was just beginning to produce an inclination for the soft and civilized life of the town; a taste which has gone on strengthening, until it has reached the somewhat too luxurious character of our day. As regards cost of living in king James's day, the sum of 20*l.* would purchase chambers in an inn of court 1620; and 20*l.* per annum would well cover the expenses of a student therein, or at either university.

STATE OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.—Letters may be truly said to have revived during the reign of James. Some of the most extraordinary minds illuminated this day; and if the euphony, elegance, and correct taste of modern times were wanting, genius of the most transcendent kind was not. Shakspeare, the most original and natural of poets, Bacon, who opened the door of science, Galilei, the first of astronomers, Ben Jonson, Raleigh, Camden, Cervantes, Grotius, Hooker, flourished at this time. Even king James, as a logical disputant, and a most powerful relater of facts, and calculator of consequences, is entitled to great praise. No man could write, when he chose to lay aside the pedantic style of his

day, more nervously, neatly, and convincingly than he; and whoever will read his 'Basilikon Doron,' particularly the last two books, the 'True Law of Free Monarchies,' and almost all his speeches and messages to parliament, will confess him to have possessed no mean genius. If he wrote concerning witches and apparitions, who in that age did not admit the reality of such fictitious beings? If he laboured to prove the pope anti-christ, may not a similar reproach be extended to the famous Napier—and even to Newton, at a time when learning was much more advanced than during the reign of James? From the grossness of its superstitions we may infer the ignorance of an age; but we should never pronounce concerning the folly of an individual, from his admission of popular errors, consecrated as they often are by the appearance of religion. This is the only plea we have for not exclaiming against the positive criminality and wickedness of every one concerned in religious persecution; and for our not denouncing the mistaken heresy-hunters of either side, as the lost children of Belial. The illustrious Milton was a boy in this reign; yet was he old enough to be taken into account with the other stars of the period, being 17 when the king died.

LOSS OF THE PALATINATE, 1620.

—As the house of Austria, throughout her extensive dominions, had ever made the maintenance of religion the plea for her usurpations, she now met with resistance from a like principle; and as the catholic tenets, as usual, had ranged themselves on the side of monarchy, so the protestants were found on that of liberty. The states of Bohemia having taken arms against the emperor Matthias, continued their revolt against his successor Ferdinand, and claimed the observance of all the edicts enacted in favour of the new religion, together with the restoration of their ancient laws and constitution. The neighbouring principalities, Silesia, Moravia, Lusatia,

Austria, even the kingdom of Hungary, took part in the quarrel; and throughout all these populous and martial provinces, the spirit of discord and civil war had diffused itself. Ferdinand II., who possessed more vigour and greater abilities than had then been usual among Austrian princes, strongly armed himself for the recovery of his authority; and, besides employing the assistance of his subjects who professed the ancient religion, he engaged on his side a powerful alliance of the neighbouring potentates. All the catholic princes of the empire had embraced his defence—even Saxony, the most powerful of the protestant; Poland had declared itself in his favour; and above all, the Spanish monarch, deeming his own interest closely connected with that of the younger branch of his family, prepared succours from Italy and the Low Countries, and advanced large sums for the support of Ferdinand and the catholic religion. The states of Bohemia, alarmed at these mighty preparations, began also to solicit foreign assistance; and together with that support which they obtained from the evangelical union in Germany, they endeavoured to establish connexions with greater princes. They cast their eyes on Frederick, elector-palatine. They considered, that besides commanding no despicable force of his own, he was son-in-law of the king of England, and nephew to prince Maurice, whose authority was become almost absolute in the United Provinces. They hoped that these princes, moved by the connexions of blood, as well as by the tie of their common religion, would interest themselves in all the fortunes of Frederick, and would promote his greatness. They therefore made him a tender of their crown, which they considered elective; and the young palatine, stimulated by ambition, without consulting either James or Maurice, whose opposition he foresaw, immediately accepted the offer, and marched into Bohemia in support of his new subjects. The

news of these events no sooner reached England, than the whole kingdom was on fire to engage in the quarrel. Scarcely was the ardour greater with which all the states of Europe in former ages flew to rescue the Holy Land from the dominion of infidels. The people were as yet sincerely attached to the blood of their monarchs, and they considered their connexion with the palatine, who had married a daughter of England, as very close and intimate. And when they heard of catholics carrying on wars and persecutions against protestants, they thought their own interests deeply concerned, and regarded their neutrality as a base desertion of the cause of God, and of his holy religion. In such a quarrel they would gladly have marched to the opposite extremity of Europe, have plunged themselves into a chaos of German politics, and have expended all the blood and treasure of the nation, by maintaining a contest with the whole house of Austria, at the very time and in the very place in which it was the most potent, and almost irresistible. But James, besides that his temper was too little enterprising for such vast undertakings, was restrained by another motive, which had a mighty influence over him; he refused to patronize the revolt of subjects against their sovereign. From the first he denied to his son-in-law the title of king of Bohemia; he forbade him to be prayed for in the churches under that appellation; and though he owned that he had nowise examined the pretensions, privileges, and constitution of the revolted states, so exalted was his notion of the right of kings, that he concluded subjects must ever be in the wrong when they stood in opposition to those who had acquired or assumed that majestic title. Meanwhile affairs hastened to a crisis. Ferdinand levied a force under the command of the duke of Bavaria and the count of Burgoy, and advanced upon his enemy in Bohemia; while in the Netherlands, the Spanish general Spinola, to op-

pose him, had collected a veteran army of 30,000 men. Almost at one and the same instant it was known in England, that Frederick, having been defeated in the decisive battle of Prague, 1620, had fled with his family into Holland; and that Spinola had invaded the palatinate, and, meeting with no resistance, except from one English regiment of 2400 men, commanded by the brave sir Horace Vere, had, in a little time, made himself master of that principality.

THE BERMUDAS COLONIZED BY THE ENGLISH, 1611.—These isles, called also Somers Isles, are above 300 in number, lie in the Atlantic Ocean, 600 miles east of South Carolina, in North America, and contain about 12,000 acres. They were discovered, 1552, by Bermudez, a Spaniard, who found them uninhabited. Sir George Somers, from whom they are also named, was wrecked upon them 1609; when he took possession of them for king James, and made his way to Virginia in a vessel constructed there of cedar, which did not contain an ounce of iron, excepting one bolt in the keel. The isles were shortly after colonized from Virginia and England; and though disputes for some time prevailed respecting the rights of the Virginia company, they have ever since remained in the possession of the British. St. George's is the military station of the colony; but the isle Ireland is the seat of government, where is a fine dock-yard, and also a breakwater, similar to that of Plymouth. The Bermudas are the Gibraltar of the West Indies; and Washington was very desirous of annexing them to the American republic, to make them, as he said, 'a nest of hornets to annoy English commerce.' There is a governor, a legislative assembly of 36, and a council of eight members, but no militia. The cedar grows to a great height, and is used for ship-building: arrow-root is the staple commodity, while cotton, coffee, indigo, and tobacco grow as luxuriantly as in the West Indies. Fish are abundant; and

about 20 whales are caught in the season, yielding 1000 barrels of oil. From the climate of these isles being so favourable to European health, invalids go constantly from the West Indies thither; and as they enjoy an almost perpetual summer, the term 'Somers' has often been thought to mean the season it resembles in sound.

NOVA SCOTIA colonized by the Scots, 1621. The Cabots having discovered this territory 1497, the English governor and colonists of Virginia at length claimed the country 1621, and turned out the French colonists of Port Royal, and other parts of Acadia, as the country was then called. But though James I. granted the whole territory to Sir Wm. Alexander, the French again got possession, and held Nova Scotia till expelled again by Cromwell, 1654. It was again lost to the French; but in 1710, Sir Wm. Phipps, an enterprising native of New England (originally a poor shepherd, who had been knighted by James II. for his skill in raising 300,000*l.* sterling from a Spanish wreck at the Bahamas), got possession of Port Royal, the name of which he changed to Annapolis, in honour of Queen Anne; and Nova Scotia was in 1713 formally ceded by France to Great Britain. The colony has a governor, a house of assembly (24 members), a legislative council, and a bishop. The several governors of Nova Scotia have been (at Annapolis) 1710, Col. Vetch; 1714, F. Nicholson; 1719, R. Phillips; 1722, J. Doucett; 1725, L. Armstrong; 1739, J. Adams; 1740, Paul Mascarene. (At Halifax) 1749, E. Cornwallis; 1752, T. Hopson; 1754, C. Lawrence; 1756, R. Monkton; 1760, J. Belcher; 1763, M. Wilmot; 1766, M. Francklin; 1766, Lord W. Campbell; 1773, F. Legge, and M. Francklin; 1776, M. Arbuthnot; 1778, R. Hughes; 1781, Sir. A. S. Hammond; 1782, John Parr; 1783, E. Fanning; 1792, J. Wentworth; 1808, Sir G. Prevost; 1811, A. Croke; 1811, Sir J. Sher-

brooke; 1816, George, earl of Dalhousie; 1820, Sir J. Kempt; 1828, Sir P. Maitland; 1834, Sir Colin Campbell. The isle of *Cape Breton*, now under the government of Nova Scotia, was originally colonized by the French, and their strong fortress of Louisburg was named after Louis XIV.; but although the latter had been 25 years in fortifying the isle, at an expense of 30 million of livres, it was finally captured by the British, 1758. It is 100 miles long and 70 broad; and Sydney, its capital, is beautifully situated. It has extensive iron and coal mines; and besides those products, cod-fish, timber, and gypsum may be considered its staples. *Sable Island*, noted for the numerous shipwrecks on its shores, as also *Magdalen Isles* in the Gulf of St. Lawrence (inhabited by the descendants of the Acadian French), are also dependencies of Nova Scotia. *Prince Edward Isle* is under the same rule, and was captured by the English at the same time with Cape Breton, 1758. It is in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, 140 miles long, and 34 broad, and quite a pastoral country. Neither coal nor iron has yet been discovered; but it is a tempting spot for emigrants with small capitals, since crop after crop of wheat is raised without any manure whatever. The barley is excellent, and the oats are much superior to any other of American growth; the potatoes and turnips cannot be exceeded anywhere; and all the produce of English gardens thrives equally well. The climate is particularly favourable to sheep; they are not subject to any disease common to sheep in this country; they are small, but of excellent flavour, the common size being 60*lbs* the carcass. Hares and partridges are plentiful, and free for any one to kill; and in the spring and autumn there is abundance of wild geese, ducks, and other aquatic fowl. Lobsters, herrings, and most other fish are extraordinarily plentiful; and timber for all purposes, especially for shipbuilding, is everywhere to be found.

Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia, has a harbour so fine, and so well situated (being directly open to the Atlantic, and its navigation seldom being interrupted by ice), that it is the chief English naval station in North America. The interior of Nova Scotia is one third occupied by lakes of various shapes and sizes, so spread out that there is no point in the 15,617 square miles the province occupies, which is 80 miles from navigable water. The country is very undulating notwithstanding, there being scarcely more than half a mile at a time of level ground; but the elevation is always trifling, the highest land, Ardoise Hill (if we except the land skirting the west and north), being only 810 feet above the sea. The scenery throughout is extremely picturesque; and the chief articles of export are fish, timber, beef, pork, and flour.

NEWFOUNDLAND MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1623.—This isle, 420 miles long, and 300 broad, was first held by Biorn, an Icelandic pirate or sea-king, 1001. John Cabot visited it 1497, and brought to England three of the natives; and from the supposition that it was 'a new found' territory, it obtained from the subjects of Henry VII. the name it bears. No regular attempt at a settlement, however, was made until 1683, when Sir Humphrey Gilbert, half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh, having obtained a patent from Elizabeth, sold his estates, and fitted out five vessels, in which he embarked with 200 people. He took quiet possession of the country; but his crews soon mutinied, and the ship in which Sir Humphrey was on his way home, foundered. The first permanent settlement was effected 1623, by Sir George Calvert, afterwards lord Baltimore, at Ferry Low, in order that he might enjoy the free exercise of the catholic religion; and by degrees his party spread over all the bays in the south-eastern peninsula. Lord Baltimore made his son governor over the colony, which he called *Avalon* (from the ancient name

of Glastonbury), because Christianity was first preached there by his party, as it had been, according to tradition, in Britain at *Avalon*. So important did Newfoundland now appear to the authorities at home, that Charles I. issued a commission, 1633, to erect a common fishery therein, as a nursery for seamen; and though the French had obtained a seat at Placentia, no less than 15 different parts of the island were occupied by the English under this new patent. From that time till 1702, there were constant bickerings between France and England as to their respective claims; and a direct war then commenced for the full possession, which terminated in its conquest by the French, 1710. Until 1713 they remained in possession; but by the treaty of Utrecht, the island was ceded to Great Britain, the French being allowed to catch and cure fish on certain conditions, and to occupy the islets of St. Pierre and Miquelon, with a garrison of 50 men each. The staple commodities of Newfoundland are cod, herrings, and salmon, small skins of all sorts, and whale, cod, and seal oil. From the fact of the harbour being only accessible by one large ship at a time, and from the numerous fortifications and batteries erected for its protection, St. John's is a place of considerable strength. The climate is in some parts severe, but less so than that of Lower Canada; while, during the long winter, the brilliancy of the *Aurora Borealis*, and the splendid lustre of the moon and stars, give peculiar beauty to the atmosphere. The longevity of the inhabitants is the best proof of the salubrity of Newfoundland: in no country is old age attended with greater bodily or mental vigour; and there are instances of fishermen, 100 years old, being actively employed in the arduous duties of their calling. Little is known of the interior of this vast island. The coast of Labrador is adjacent, and under its government; but of that still less is known beyond that its winter is extremely trying, the

thermometer often falling to 30 below zero. Though the houses of the Moravian missionaries are heated by large iron stoves, the windows and walls are throughout the winter covered with ice, and the bed-clothes freeze to the walls. Rum is frozen in the air as rapidly as water; and rectified spirits soon become thick like oil. The government of Newfoundland is in a house of assembly of 15, and a legislative and executive council; and there has been a resident governor since 1728.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1623. 'St. Kitts', as it is more commonly called, is an isle 72 miles in circumference, and noted for its fertility. It is in shape like Italy, and when discovered by Columbus, 1493, was densely peopled by Caribs. In 1623 Mr. Warner (afterwards Sir Thomas) settled on the island, with his son and 14 Londoners, and found three Frenchmen residing in tranquillity with the natives. Warner came back to England for more recruits; and on his return in 1625, landed on the same day with M. D'Enambuc, who had arrived from France with a party of colonists. The Caribs took alarm, made war on the European invaders, were discomfited with the loss of 2,000 in killed and wounded, but left 100 of their foes dead from their poisoned arrows. The English and French hereupon agreeing to share the island between them, it was divided into Capisterre (or Upper), belonging to the French; and Basseterre (Lower), appropriated to the English. Although the Spaniards with a large fleet attacked the colonists 1629, and carried off 600 Englishmen, the flow of emigration was so great to the West Indies, that, in 1630, the English settlers amounted to 6,000. Jealousies, and at length hostilities, began between the English and French settlers; and the latter, having assumed the mastery of the whole island, gallantly defended their acquisition against a large English force under lord Belamont, sent to recover pos-

session. In that contest his lordship and 700 of his soldiers fell. At the peace of Breda, the English colonists were restored to their portion of the island, and for 20 years lived in peace with their neighbours; but in 1639 the French entered their territory, and, by the aid of fire and sword, forced them to fly from the colony. In 1690 Sir F. Thornhill and General Codrington, with a force from Barbadoes, drove the French from St. Kitts, and for several years the English in turn remained masters of the whole island; but by the treaty of Ryswick, restitution was made to the French of the part they had formerly possessed. This they retained until 1702, when the isle was captured by the English; and by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, it was entirely ceded to the British crown. Most of the French removed to St. Domingo; and the sale of the crown lands produced a large sum for government, of which 40,000*l.* was voted as a dowry for the daughter of George II. St. Kitts rapidly increased in prosperity, notwithstanding the effects of a terrific hurricane in 1722, which destroyed 500,000*l.* worth of property. In 1782 the Marquis de Bouillé, with 8,000 troops, supported by the Count de Grasse and 29 sail of the line, captured the island ere Sir S. Hood, with 22 sail, could effect anything for its relief; the peace, however, of Versailles 1783, restored it to Great Britain, in whose possession it has ever since remained. This healthful and beautiful colony is ruled by a governor, a council of 10, and a house of assembly of 24. Its chief productions for export are sugar, rum, and molasses; oranges, limes, shaddocks (of the orange tribe), the grenadella (the fruit of a large passion-flower, containing a sweet and agreeable liquid), the forbidden fruit (of the citrus tribe), and the avocado, or alligator-pear, with its pulpy marrow, grow here in great luxuriance. *Tortola*, and the other *Virgin Isles*, are under the government of St. Kitts. They were discovered by Columbus

1493; and are at present divided between the English, Danes, and Spaniards. The earliest occupants of the British Virgin Isles were a party of Dutch buccaneers in 1648 at Tortola: these a stronger party of English buccaneers expelled 1666; and Charles II. soon after annexed them to the Leeward Isles government, to which they remained attached until 1773, when they were added to St. Kitts. Sugar, rum, molasses, and cotton are the chief produce for export. *Anguilla*, or Snake Island, (so called from its tortuous form), is also under St. Kitts; and was colonized by the English 1650. In 1745, the settlers, only 100, repulsed a body of 1,000 French who came to attack them; but in 1796 the latter retaliated in a manner worthy of the atrocities of

their home revolution. Two ships of war were sent, with 400 picked troops under Victor Hugues, to burn every settlement, and exterminate the British in Anguilla. The emissaries set about their work in good earnest, and committed the most barbarous atrocities on the defenceless inhabitants; but they were happily interrupted by the arrival of a ship of war under Captain Barton, who captured one of the enemy's ships and sunk the other. Anguilla, which is only 30 miles long and three broad, yields freely sugar, cotton, and maize; quantities of cattle are reared; and in the centre of the isle is a salt-lake, yielding annually three million bushels. The colonists have a chief magistrate; and a deputy sits in the St. Kitts assembly.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER AHMED I., &c.—Ahmed succeeded his father, Mohammed III., 1603, and, contrary to the usual practice, spared the life of his brother Mustafa. He entered into a war with Shah Abbas of Persia, but lost therein the important town of Erwan. He also supported an insurrection in Hungary, against Rodolph II.; but in 1606 he concluded a peace with that emperor at Komorn. He then laboured to suppress the revolutionary movements in the Asiatic part of his dominions, instigated by Kalender Oglı; and in 1609, tranquillity was restored. Ahmed was of a mild and luxurious character: his harem contained 3000 women, and 40,000 falconers were in his pay. A magnificent mosque, which he built at Constantinople, and a richly ornamented curtain, which he sent to the sanctuary at Mecca, attest, at the same time, that he was not indifferent about the Islam. He died 1617, and was succeeded by his brother, **MUSTAFA I.** The Janizaries raised insurrections at the instant of his accession; and after contending with them in vain, Mustafa was seized and thrown into prison 1618, and his nephew, **OSMAN II.**, placed on the

throne. He was the first Turkish monarch who engaged in a war with Poland, 1621; but a peace was speedily concluded, with the proviso that the Poles should have a free trade in the Turkish dominions, their merchants paying yearly for the privilege 10,000 sequins. In 1622, a revolt took place in favour of the captive sultan; and Osman being deposed, **MUSTAFA** was restored, only, however, to be expelled again, and incarcerated for life, 1623. **MORAD IV.**, the youthful brother of the deposed Osman, was next made sovereign by the Janizaries; who now, like the prætorian guard, created and annihilated kings at pleasure. The only event of importance during Morad's period of rule was his capture of the city of Bagdad, 1638. He died, aged 41, 1640.

THE POPEDOM.—**LEO XI.** was chosen pope on the death of Clement VIII., 1605. He was cardinal Alessandro de Medici, and had been sent by his predecessor as legate, to receive Henri IV. into the bosom of the Church. He was 78 when elected; and he died 27 days after that event, from the fatigue occasioned him by a ceremonial in the church of St.

John in Laterano. PAUL V., (Camillo Borghese,) a noble Roman, succeeded, in opposition to the claims of the celebrated cardinals, Bellarmine and Baronius. He was well skilled in civil law, and effected many beneficial reforms in the secular arrangement of church affairs. He put Venice under an interdict, for its laws against the privileges of the clergy; and the violent dispute which ensued between Rome and the oligarchy, was terminated with great difficulty by the mediation of Henri IV. and cardinal de Joyeuse, 1607. Paul approved the congregation of priests of the Oratoire in France, as well as the order of the Religious of the Visitation, canonized Charles Borromeo, and died, aged 69, 1621. His successor was GREGORY XV., Alessandro Ludovisio, of Bologna, a prelate of a mild and conciliatory spirit, whose first act was to suppress the disturbances of Valtellina; where the people, assisted by the Spanish governor of Milan, had revolted against the Grisons, and massacred all the protestants in the country. Gregory canonized Ignatius of Loyola, and Francis Xavier; made the see of Paris metropolitan, and founded the college at Rome De Propagandâ Fide. He died, aged 69, 1623, and was succeeded by URBAN VIII. (Maffeo Barberini), who united the duchy of Urbino to the holy see, governed the Church with great prudence and splendour, was fond of polite literature and men of genius, and was a good Latin and Italian poet. He died 1644.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIII.—Louis XIII., 'le Juste,' ascended the throne at the age of 9, after the murder of his illustrious father, Henri IV., 1610, under the tutelage and regency of his mother, Mary de Medici. He was declared of age in 1614; and in the next year Henri, prince of Condé, dissatisfied with not being invested with the principal authority, retired from court, and siding with the Calvinists, revived those troubles which had before disturbed the king-

dom. Condé affected to be jealous of the favour shown to Concini, marshal d'Ancre, a Florentine, the minister of the queen-dowager, who, with his wife Leonora Galigai disposed of dignities as if possessed of regal power. In 1615 the young king married Anne of Austria, infanta of Spain; and in 1619, becoming tired of the restraints put upon him by d'Ancre and his wife, he caused the former to be assassinated, and the latter to be formally tried on a charge of witchcraft. Being declared guilty, she was beheaded, and her body given to be burned. By the advice of Luines, one of his youthful courtiers, Louis sent his mother to Blois under an arrest; and Luines was created a duke, and constable of France. The prince of Condé had been imprisoned during d'Ancre's period of influence; but Luines released him, and the prince ever after remained faithful to the king. The queen-mother having at length escaped from Blois, and being supported by many of the nobles, the civil war broke out again; but the bishop of Lucon, Armand du Plessis, who had been promoted in the church by Leonora Galigai, acted as mediator between the king and his mother; in consequence of which he obtained a cardinal's hat, and on the death of Luines, 1624, became prime minister. He is best known as cardinal Richelieu; and it may justly be said, that from 1624, until that minister's death, 1642, the reign of Louis XIII. was *de facto* the reign of Richelieu. The cardinal's line of policy involved the suppression of protestantism, as necessary for the peace of the kingdom; and when the duke of Buckingham, more anxious to revenge himself upon Anne of Austria, (who had refused his hand to accept that of Louis) than to benefit the cause of the church, excited a revolt of the protestants of Rochelle, 1627, by promising them the assistance of an English armament, Richelieu declared war against England. Buckingham thereupon landed with troops in the isle of Rhé, but was

repulsed by the marquis de Thoyras ; and the cardinal forthwith invested Rochelle, the last stronghold of the Huguenots, and took it 1628. From that moment the protestant cause was lost in France. A quarrel soon after, between the cardinal and Gaston duke of Orleans, occasioned the latter and his mother, queen Mary, to quit France ; and the duke of Montmorency having been taken in arms in their cause, was executed 1632. In the Thirty Years' war which ensued between France and Germany, Gustavus of Sweden took the side of Louis ; and Richelieu, notwithstanding his clerical rank, acted as a general. Spain becoming involved in the contest, and acting against France, a Spanish force invaded Picardy, 1635, at the same period that the Austrians attacked Burgundy ; but the French were successful at Rheinfeld, 1638, and took Arras, hitherto deemed impregnable, 1640. The count de Soissons, a cousin of Henri IV., at this juncture, (having long been harassed by Richelieu, because of his refusal to marry the cardinal's daughter,) revolted ; and when attacked by the royalist forces under de Chatillon, he put them to the rout. The count, however, was soon after slain in a battle at Marfée, 1641 ; and the cardinal's power over the king now became so great, that when the monarch's unfortunate friend and associate, Cinq Mars, grand écuyer, conspired to destroy his influence in the state, Richelieu compelled Louis to sign the warrant for his execution. Both the ambitious minister and the queen-mother died soon after this event, 1642, the cardinal being in his 59th year. The policy of this able man had been to render the French government absolute, as most for the peace of his country ; and he succeeded. He had, at the same time, patronized learning, and the fine arts ; he established the royal press ; he embellished Paris ; he was magnificent and high-minded ; and it may be affirmed that his ambition was neither a selfish nor a vulgar one. Among

his agents and confidants was a capuchin, called Father Joseph, whom he employed in the most secret and important affairs, and who seems to have equalled his master in abilities. Louis died, aged 42, 1643, leaving his son, Louis XIV., a minor, under the regency of the queen-mother.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL UNDER PHILIP III.—This prince was 20 when he succeeded his father Philip II., 1598, being the first *born* sovereign of the whole peninsula since the sway of the Romans. His general, Spinola, took Ostend, 1604, after a siege of three years, and the loss of 80,000 men ; but on making a truce of 12 years with his enemies in that quarter, 1609, Philip acknowledged the independence of the seven revolted Netherland provinces, and the sovereignty over them of the house of Nassau, which is enjoyed by the latter to this day. The discovery of America, instead of enriching Spain, was now found to have grievously impoverished it ; the people having become indolent and wholly averse from business, by the sudden influx of the precious metals. The ruin of the kingdom was completed by Philip, 1610, when, at the instigation of his prime minister, the duke of Lerma, he expelled the remaining Moors from the peninsula, giving them only 30 days to prepare for departure, on the plea that they were Moslims in heart, though professedly Christians. By this impolitic measure, Spain lost a million of industrious inhabitants ; and as the country was already depopulated by wars, emigrations to America, and luxury, it soon sank into a state of languor, from which it has never since recovered. It was not till 60 years after his accession, that Philip resolved on paying a visit to his Portuguese dominions ; where the people put themselves to an enormous expense to receive him, 1618. Having shown himself little in and about Lisbon, during a few weeks' stay, and done less, he returned into Spain. His death occurred through the punctilious ceremony of

his court. A brazier in the council-room having overheated him while the officer whose duty it was to remove it was absent (no other personage daring to touch it), a violent erysipelas ensued, and carried him to the grave in a few days, 1621, at the age of 48.

GERMANY UNDER MATTHIAS.—

Matthias in 1612 succeeded his brother, Rodolph II., who, to keep his relative from seditious practices, had ceded to him Hungary and Austria in his lifetime. The protestants, who were now divided into Lutherans and Calvinists, were so constantly disputing, not with the catholics, but with each other, as to threaten the empire with a civil war; and when Matthias at last attempted to reconcile them, the Bohemians threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. Matthias hereupon thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the 'Evangelic League,' which was counterbalanced by another called 'Catholic.' The subsequent contests kept Germany in a most disturbed state till 1619; when Matthias dying, was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II.

SCOTLAND UNDER JAMES VI. The Scots, upon the accession of their king James VI. to the English (now become the British) throne, 1603, dazzled with the glory of giving a sovereign to their powerful enemy, relying on the partiality of their prince, and hoping to share in the wealth and honours he would be able to bestow, were wholly unable to weigh the consequences of that great event, and to see how obviously all the good that could accrue to them was simply in reversion. One of the king's earliest attempts was to unite the two kingdoms by a great national council; for which purpose he appointed commissioners, who at length agreed to certain articles, which were laid before the two parliaments. But national prejudices were still too strong to permit so salutary a project to be carried.

James next attempted to destroy the presbyterian form of church government, and to introduce episcopacy in its room; and with this view, he evaded the urgent wishes of the clergy to meet in their general assembly. The leading presbyterians hereupon called, by their own authority, an assembly to meet at Aberdeen; and this being deemed rebellion, they were seized, tried, and condemned; six of them were banished for life; and in a parliament at Perth, 1610, the bishops were restored to all their honours. After 14 years' absence, James revisited Scotland, 1617. Although general assemblies had been called originally by the king's authority, 1588, yet the bishops had gradually established a high-commission court to supersede them; and the king, on this occasion, gave sanction to the change, by passing an act in parliament at Edinburgh. Simpson, Calderwood, and other ministers, who were neither to be soothed nor awed, were imprisoned, and banished; after which, episcopal worship was performed in the chapel-royal, with vocal and instrumental music. Upon James's return to London, the Scottish clergy called a general assembly at Perth, and, after great opposition, adopted into the order of the church of Scotland five articles of the church of England: 'that the Lord's supper should be received kneeling; that it should be administered privately to the sick at their request; that baptism should be administered in private; that children should receive confirmation when the bishops deemed it proper; and lastly, that the anniversaries of the nativity, the passion, the resurrection, and the ascension of Christ, and the descent of the Holy Ghost, should be observed as holy days.' These five articles were afterwards ratified by the parliament of 1621. One of James's last acts concerning Scotland was his patronage of a Scottish scheme for colonizing North America, 1621, when he conferred upon a number of adventurers the title of 'knights baronets of Nova

Scotia ;' soon after which he died, 1625.

PERSIA UNDER ABBAS THE GREAT.—Shah Abbas, fifth of the Sôfi dynasty, succeeded at 18, on the deposition of his brother, Mohammed Mirza, 1584. Finding the treasury exhausted by wars with the Turks and Tartars, he attempted the recovery of the provinces they had seized ; and marching into Khorasan, defeated the forces of Abdallah, prince of the Usbec Tartars, and cut off his head. Having made himself master of the province, he returned to Isfahan ; and adorning that city with many noble edifices, constituted it his capital. He afterwards recovered or won from the Turks, Georgia, Kurdistan, and Bagdad ; and he retook the isle of Ormus from the Portuguese. Displaying great zeal for the Shiah form, he was a liberal benefactor to Nejef, where the remains of Ali lie interred ; but he nevertheless encouraged Christian merchants to settle in Persia, appointing a quarter of Isfahan to the Armenians. He was severe to his ministers and nobles, and barbarously cruel in his own family ; even causing his eldest son to be murdered, and blinding both his other sons, upon suspicion of their aiming at the crown. He died, aged 61, 1628, giving positive orders, on his death-bed, that his death should be concealed from the people, till the succession should be secured to Sâffi, his grandson. These orders were punctually obeyed in the following curious manner. His body was exposed every day in the hall where he had been used to administer justice, seated upon the tribunal, with the eyes open ; behind the tapestry was secretly placed the Aga Yussef, who, by means of a silken cord, lifted up the arms, while another officer made a show of representing to Abbas the several grievances of the people. His death was thus not publicly known for six weeks ; by which time Sâffi was securely seated on the throne.

• **RUSSIA UNDER FEODOR II., &c.—**

On the death of the usurper Boris, 1605, his son Feodorovitz succeeded to the crown as Feodor II. ; but Otrepiet, the false Demetrius (Dimitri), in a few weeks drove him out, seized the throne, and married a princess of the extinct male line of Ruric. He was slain in an insurrection, two months after his elevation ; and Zuski, the chief conspirator against him, was chosen czar, as VASILY V. This personage was perpetually harassed by the intrigues of parties laying claim to the throne, as descendants of Ruric ; and so severe was the contest in 1610, that he was compelled to abdicate in favour of a second false Dimitri. An influential body of Russians hereupon chose Vladislaus, the son of Sigismund III. of Sweden and Poland, for their czar ; but while that prince was fighting his way to the throne, a massacre of the Poles in Moscow began. On getting possession of that capital, Vladislaus ordered his soldiers to set fire to it at various points ; and the Poles fell upon and destroyed above 100,000 defenceless women, old men, and children. The spirit of the Russians was now sufficiently roused, to cause a general revolt of the towns about the capital, the most powerful district of Muscovy ; and the Poles, being attacked at all points, were driven out 1612, and lost all footing in Russia for ever. Meanwhile a second and a third false Demetrius arose ; but the last of those pretenders was put down 1613, by MIKHAIL ROMANOV, the founder of the present royal house of Russia, and a collateral descendant of Ruric. He was 17 when elected czar by the adherents of the old nobles ; and he passed a reign of 32 years, with as little disturbance, foreign and domestic, as has ever fallen to the lot of a ruler of men. Not only did the Russians seem rejoiced to possess again one whom they were pleased to consider a legitimate sovereign, but their external enemies appear to have waived their natural antipathies in his favour. He died, aged 49, 1645.

HOLLAND UNDER MAURICE.—On the death of the prince of Orange being made known, 1584, the Netherlands fell again into a state of anarchy. The provinces of Holland and Zealand alone endeavoured to repair the loss, and show their gratitude to William, by electing his son Maurice their stadtholder, and captain-general by sea and land. Maurice was at that time only 18, but appeared in many respects worthy of the high dignity conferred on him. The first step taken by the confederates was a solemn renewal of the treaty of Utrecht; but before anything could be done in defence of the country, the duke of Parma had reduced Ghent, Antwerp, and other towns, and so terrified the States, that they again offered the sovereignty to queen Elizabeth. This was again refused, though that princess engaged to assist the States with men and money, and instantly sent an army into the Netherlands under the earl of Leicester. The conduct of that general, however, not only baffled every military enterprise, but drew upon himself the general odium. It is probable that the States could not therefore have supported themselves much longer, had not Philip II. rashly engaged in a war with England, with whose naval power he could scarcely have expected to cope successfully. The defeat of his Armada in 1588 totally disabled him from continuing the war in the Netherlands; whence he was compelled to call his general, the duke of Parma, to aid the duke of Mayence, who had been defeated by Henri IV. Prince Maurice now carried every thing before him. By the end of 1591, the Dutch saw their frontiers extended, the whole country secured by rivers and fortified towns, and the greatest probability of driving the Spaniards out of Friesland in another campaign. The remainder of the history of this war is only a detail of Spanish losses and misfortunes; and a decisive victory being at length gained by Maurice, 1600, over the archduke Albert, Spanish governor of

the Netherlands, Philip III., who had succeeded 1598, agreed in 1607 to a suspension of hostilities for 12 years. This partial acknowledgment of the independence of the revolted provinces, induced the States to reward the faithful services of Maurice with a princely pension, as stadtholder; and there was a large party even desirous of investing him with sovereign power, but who found a republic more to the general taste. But no sooner had the Dutch begun to feel the pleasures of liberty, than its evils also appeared, and grievous dissensions among themselves took place. The restraining power of the papal yoke being shaken off, Arminians and Calvinists commenced a fierce struggle; objections were raised to the authority vested in Maurice; and the grand-pensionary, John de Barneveldt, who had been sent ambassador by the states to Elizabeth and Henri IV., the learned Grotius, and others, attempted to limit his prerogative. Barneveldt was seized, on the plea of a design to deliver the country to the Spaniards, and beheaded, 1619; the learned Grotius was committed to prison, but escaped through the devotion of his wife; and when the sons of Barneveldt, William and René, resented the fate of their parent, though the elder escaped, René felt the punishment due to a conspirator. On this occasion, the widow of Barneveldt personally solicited her son's life of Maurice; who expressed his surprise at her eagerness to save him, when she had seen his father fall, and interposed not in his behalf. 'I would not,' replied the magnanimous woman, 'solicit a pardon for my husband, because he was innocent: I ask it for my son, because he is guilty.' In 1621 war was renewed with Spain; and so early did the republic evince that love of 'thrift' which has since rendered the terms *Dutch* and *thrifty* synonymous, that, during the whole course of the contest, the Hollanders traded to the Spanish ports, as if there had been an entire friendship subsisting

between the two nations. It was even no uncommon practice with them to supply towns with provisions that were besieged by their own armies; and to furnish the enemy with ammunition and other necessities, without which they could not have carried on the war. Their motive and apology for this conduct was, that thus they kept in their own hands the profits by which other nations would be enriched! By steadily pursuing this line of conduct, making as many prizes as they could by force, and as much profit of their enemies as could be obtained by a lucrative trade, the republic soon rivalled in wealth the greatest nations of Europe. During this war, Breda was lost to the Spaniards, after a siege of six months; and that circumstance, together, it is said, with remorse for the unjust death of the Barneveldts, occasioned Maurice a fever, of which he died, aged 55, 1625. (*See Independence of Holland.*)

DELHI UNDER JEHANGIR.—Selim succeeded his father Akber, under the name of Jehangir, 1605, and passed a reign of 23 years in unusual peace, if the tumults occasioned by the intrigues of his own son be excepted. During his sway, James I. of England sent Sir Thomas Roe as his ambassador to Delhi, requesting permission to establish a factory at Surat; the granting of which on the part of Jehangir may be regarded as the first step gained by the English towards that extraordinary height of power now enjoyed by them in the East—where, though the population of their own British islands is but from 15 to 20 millions, the actual amount of British subjects is full 120 millions! Jehangir died, aged 42, 1628.

BOHEMIA UNDER FERDINAND II.—It has been already stated that Bohemia, after being long a fief of the German empire, was made part and parcel of the same under Ferdinand of Austria, who, by marriage, became king of Bohemia, 1526, and by inheritance, emperor of Germany, 1556. No disturbance occurred to the regu-

lar succession of the emperors till 1619; when the Bohemian states, which had in the main adopted protestant opinions, revolted, and chose Frederick count-palatine, son-in-law of James I. of England, their king, in opposition to the new emperor, Ferdinand II. This was the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, memorable as one of the most desolating religious contests ever witnessed. Frederick was compelled to give up his high dignity 1620; and when Ferdinand found time, by the treaty of Lubec, 1629, he adopted measures of retaliation, which drove the protestants to despair. He abolished the reformed religion in Bohemia, exiled or put to death the leaders of that and other dissident communions, and proscribed 700 noble Bohemians; whereupon 30,000 Bohemian families below noble rank, preferring their consciences to their country, sought refuge in protestant states. The remainder of the reign of Ferdinand will be found in the German reign; and from that period till our own day, Bohemia has been little distinguished in history from the empire of which it forms a part. Its crown, however, is still conferred on the emperors with some appearance of election; a right the states of Bohemia pretend to claim, notwithstanding that, by the treaty of Westphalia, the country is declared hereditary in the house of Austria.

IRELAND UNDER JAMES I.—Ireland began to assume, under James, an appearance very unusual. So prevalent at Elizabeth's death was the influence of the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, their main agents, attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but their plot being discovered, they fled to Spain. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they instigated Sir Calim O'Dogherty to a fresh insurrection, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money; and the result was that Sir Calim was killed in a consequent skirmish, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders

of the Irish rebels, which passed in the reigns of Elizabeth and James, vested in the crown, 511,465 acres in the several districts of Donegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh : and James was enabled to make that protestant plantation in the north of Ireland, which in a short time rendered Ulster, hitherto the most rebellious province of the island, the most quiet and reformed. In all plantations formerly attempted, Irish and English had been mixed ; from a notion that the former would learn civility and industry from the latter. Experience, however, had shown that this intercourse served but to make the Irish envy the superior comforts of their English neighbours, and induced them to take advantage of a free access to their houses, to steal their goods, and plot against their lives. Separate quarters were therefore determined on ; and in the choice of these situations, the errors of former times were carefully corrected. The original English adventurers, on their first settlement in Ireland, were captivated by the fair appearance of the plain and open districts ; where they erected their castles and other habitations, forcing the natives into the woods and mountains, their natural fortresses. The latter, in consequence, turned bandits, and continually robbed and otherwise injured their English masters. But now the northern Irish were placed in the most open and accessible parts of the country ; where they might lie under the close inspection of their neighbours, and be gradually habituated to agriculture and the mechanic arts. The patentees to whom lands amounting to 2000 acres were on this occasion granted, were to hold of the king *in capite* ; those of 1500, by knight's service ; those of 1000, in common socage. The first were to build a castle, and inclose a strong courtyard, or *bawn* as it was called, within four years ; the second, to finish a house and bawn within two years ;

and the third, to inclose a bawn ; for even this rude species of fortification was accounted no inconsiderable defence against an Irish enemy. The first were to settle upon their lands, within three years, 48 able men of English or Scottish birth, to be reduced to 20 families ; to keep a demesne of 600 acres in their own hands ; to have four fee-farmers on 120 acres each ; six leaseholders, each on 100 acres ; and on the rest, eight families of husbandmen, artificers, and cottagers. The others were under the like obligations proportionably. But scarcely had the lands been allotted to the different patentees, when considerable portions were claimed by the clergy, as their rightful property ; for so greatly had the estates of the northern bishoprics been embarrassed by the usurpations of the Irish lords, and the encroachments of patentees, that they scarcely afforded a competent, much less an honourable, provision for men of worth and learning, while the state of the parochial clergy was still more deplorable. To remedy these abuses, James ordained that all lands should be deemed ecclesiastical, from which bishops had in former times received rents or pensions, and should be restored to the church ; and, to provide for the parochial clergy, he commanded the bishops to resign their impropriations (they having, during the troubles, kept most of the livings in the way of commendam or sequestration), and to relinquish the tithes, paid out of parishes, to the respective incumbents ; for which ample recompense was made out of the king's lands. To provide for a succession of worthy pastors, free-schools were endowed in the principal towns, and considerable grants of land conferred on the university of Dublin. Such was the general scheme of this famous northern plantation, so honourable to James, and of such beneficial consequence, for a while, to Ireland.

INVENTIONS, &c.

THE THERMOMETER invented by Cornelius Drebbel, of Alcmár, a Dutchman, 1620, according to some, and by Paul Sarpi, or Galilei, or Santorio, according to others. Perhaps the best way to reconcile these different claims would be to suppose that some such instrument was really invented by different persons about the same time. We know that there are certain periods in the progress of the arts, when the stream of human genius runs in the same direction, and moves towards the same object. That portion which reaches the object first may possess the title; but the others follow so rapidly, and arise so soon after, that it is impossible for a spectator to decide which is first in point of time. The first form of this instrument for measuring the degrees of heat and cold was the air-thermometer. It is a well-known fact that air expands with heat, so as to occupy more space than it does when cold; and that it is condensed by cold, so as to occupy less space than when warmed; and that this expansion and condensation is greater or less according to the degree of heat or cold applied. The principle on which the air-thermometer was constructed is very simple. The air was confined in a tube by means of some coloured liquor; and the liquor rose or fell, according as the air became expanded or condensed. But air being found improper for measuring with accuracy, since the air in the tube was affected by the *weight* as well as by the heat and cold of the atmosphere, the Florentine academy, 1650, proposed alcohol; which being coloured, was enclosed in a fine cylindrical glass tube, previously exhausted of its air, having a hollow ball at one end, and being sealed at the other. The alcohol thermometer, not being affected by the weight of the air, was a sensible improvement; and such instruments, first used in England by Mr. Boyle, came into general notice among philosophers. But great de-

fects were soon discovered even in them. The liquor was of different degrees of strength, and therefore different tubes filled with it, when exposed to the same degree of heat, would not correspond; and again, the scale adjusted to the instrument did not commence at any fixed point. It was reserved for Newton to make yet further improvement, therefore, 1701. He chose as fixed those points at which water freezes and boils—the points which the experiments of succeeding philosophers have determined to be the most certain—and substituted linseed-oil for alcohol; since it will not freeze in very great cold, and bears a heat four times that of water before it boils. The change to oil effected something, but not all: being so viscid, it was found to adhere too strongly to the sides of the tube; and therefore to ascend and descend too slowly in case of sudden changes. At length, in 1724, Fahrenheit, of Amsterdam, tried *mercury*, which has ever since been retained. Of all the fluids hitherto employed for thermometers, it is that which measures most exactly equal differences of heat by equal differences of its bulk; of all liquids it is the most easily freed from air; it is able to measure very high degrees of heat and cold—sustaining a heat of 600 degrees of Fahrenheit's scale, and not congealing till it falls 39 or 40 degrees below zero; it is the most sensible of any fluid to heat or cold, even air not excepted, being heated from the freezing to the boiling point in 58 seconds, while water takes 2 minutes 13 seconds, and common air 10 minutes and 17 seconds; and lastly, it is a homogeneous fluid, and every portion of it is equally dilated or contracted by equal variations of heat. Its power of expansion is indeed about six times less than that of spirit of wine; but it is great enough to answer most of the purposes for which a thermometer is wanted. The thermometer used in France is called

Reaumur's, and is filled with mercury ; but it is not that invented by Reaumur 1730, as that had spirit of wine, but was invented by De Lac, who modestly used the name of one who had paid greater attention to the instrument than himself. The fixed points which are now universally chosen for adjusting thermometers to a scale and to one another, are the boiling-and-freezing-waterpoints. But as the boiling-water-point is not an invariable one, but varies some degrees according to the weight and temperature of the air, it is the practice, to insure uniformity in thermometers, to plunge the bulb of the tube into water when it boils violently, the barometer standing at 30 English inches (which is its mean height round London), and the temperature of the atmosphere being 55°. The boiling-water-point in Fahrenheit is 212°, and in Reaumur 80°.

TEA FIRST BROUGHT INTO EUROPE, 1610, by the Dutch East India Company from China. No less than forty millions of pounds of this shrub are now annually imported into England.

HAIR-POWDER FIRST USED, 1620, on curtailing the flowing hair, for cleanliness' sake. The practice seems gradually losing ground. Hair-powder is pounded starch. Starch is the sediment found at the bottom of vessels, wherein wheat has been steeped in water: the matter has only to be cleansed from impurity, and dried in the sun.

THE BLOOD FOUND TO CIRCULATE in the body by Dr. Harvey, 1610. He first demonstrated that the heart, by its action, throws out the blood by one of two ventricles to the lungs, where, by our breathing the pure air, it is changed from a black colour to red: that being then returned by means of one of two auricles (or ear-shaped receivers) to the heart, it is then passed into the other (or left) ventricle, by which it is propelled forthwith into the tubes appointed to supply every part of the body, called arteries. When the arteries have

thus distributed their charge, still smaller tubes than they carry back the blood, now deprived of its fine red colour, to the right auricle of the heart, to undergo the same process as before. These smaller tubes are the veins. It is calculated that there are 28 pounds weight of this vital fluid (448 ounces) in the body of a full grown person, of which the veins contain four-fifths, and the arteries one-fifth. It is by means of the circulation of the blood that every part of the body lives, becomes warm, and is nourished, the various secretions separated, and the chyle converted into blood; chyle being a liquid separated, or rather concocted, by the stomach from the food taken therein. Blood consists (as the microscope shows) of small globules floating in a yellowish liquid, called serum: these globules alone receive the red colour. The pulsations of the heart are, on the average, 5000 per hour.

THE CHARTER-HOUSE, LONDON, FOUNDED, 1611, by Thomas Sutton, Esq., a merchant, who amassed great wealth, insomuch that he kept back the Spanish armada one year, by draining the bank of Genoa of the money intended for Philip's use. The Charter-house comprises a hospital as well as a school, and was so named from being built on the site of the monastery of Chartreux. The hospital is for 80 decayed gentlemen, who have been merchants or military officers, each of whom is allowed 14*l.* a year, besides a gown, provisions, fuel, and two handsome apartments: they dine in a common-hall, and attend prayers daily in the chapel. The school consists of a master, preacher, two schoolmasters, and 44 scholars, who are supported free of any expense. The boys have an academical dress, like those of Eton and Westminster, and go eventually to either university.

DULWICH COLLEGE (God's Gift), SURREY, FOUNDED, 1619, by Edward Allen, an actor, for six men, six women, and 12 children. Allen was

a chief performer in the plays of Shakspeare. The college has a warden, master, and four fellows. The late Sir Francis Bourgeois bequeathed a splendid collection of pictures to it, and 10,000*l.* for a tomb for himself and Mr. and Mrs. Des Enfants, and for a gallery for the paintings. The master is the head officer, and must bear the name of Allen or Alleyn. Of the four fellows, three must be in holy orders, and the fourth well skilled in music. The poor brethren and sisters, as they are called, have apartments in the college, with every thing requisite supplied them, and a very considerable pecuniary allowance. The children (boys) are classically educated; and are sent with exhibitions to either university,

according to the discretion of the master. The income of the college at present is at least 14,000*l.* per annum.

THE ARUNDELIAN MARBLES, or Parian Chronicle, discovered, 1610.

COPPER-MONEY first used in England 1620.

SEDAN-CHAIRS first used in England, 1624, and the duke of Buckingham the first person who rode in one, that nobleman having seen them in Spain. Much clamour was raised by the common people on the occasion; it being objected that the carriers of these vehicles were degraded to the character of brute beasts.

BARONETS first created in England 1611.

EMINENT PERSONS.

FRANCIS BACON (1561—1626) was son of Sir Nicholas Bacon, keeper of the great seal under Elizabeth, and born in London. He went early to Trinity college, Cambridge; and such was the vigour of his intellect, that before 16 he was led to question the peripatetic system, and to attempt a course more likely to elicit new truths. He chose the law as a profession; at 28 was appointed counsel-extraordinary to the queen; and then figured for many years as a mere aspirant after court-favour. But though allied to lord Burleigh, that minister was very cold to him, and told Robert, earl of Essex, who continually sought his advancement, 'that he was too speculative for office.' The generous Essex at last presented him with a small landed estate; but it is to be lamented that, pressed with poverty, Bacon, after the peer's fall, acted against him as a crown lawyer. The same cause prompted him, at the close of Elizabeth's reign, to support her ministers in many matters, against his conscience; but when James succeeded, he was more fortunate, that king knighting him 1603, and making him solicitor-general 1605, on the publication of his admirable 'Ad-

vancement of Learning.' In 1613 he was appointed attorney-general; and he might now have amassed money, but for a careless expenditure, which ever kept him on the verge of want. Through the patronage of Buckingham, whom he servilely courted, he at length received the seals as lord-keeper, 1617; and it is not much to his credit that he wrote a letter to James soliciting the post, by no means omitting his own qualifications and former services. In 1619 he was created lord high chancellor of England, and baron Verulam, and in 1620 viscount St. Albans; in which year he published his great work 'The Novum Organon,' the second part of his 'Grand Instauration of the Sciences,' the design of which was to advance a more perfect exercise of the rational faculties in the improvement of the understanding, and in the interpretation and study of nature. But Sir Edward Coke and other political enemies soon disturbed the serenity of the philosophical chancellor, and certainly not without ground. No less than 23 instances of his receiving bribes as a judge were adduced against him; and in a full and explicit confession he

admitted their truth, threw himself on the mercy of his peers, and when a deputation of lords waited on him to inquire if the confession they had read was really signed with his own hand, 'It is my act, my hand, my heart,' he replied; 'I beseech your lordships to be merciful to a broken reed.' The chancellor's delinquency was, however, deemed so heinous, that a severe sentence was resolved upon; nor is there any reason to believe that party feeling, personal animosity, or anything but the nature of the case, had a share in producing it. He was sentenced to pay a fine of 40,000*l.*; to be imprisoned in the Tower during the king's pleasure; to be for ever incapable of place or employment; and never again to sit in parliament, or appear within the verge of the court. He was, however, after a time released, and a portion of his estates was granted him by James's special favour; but he never again held any important office, and though returned to parliament even to the period of Charles I., he devoted his remaining years to the composition of a history of Henry VII. He died while on a short journey, at the house of lord Arundel, at Highgate, 1626, aged 65. The '*Novum Organon* of Bacon' entitles him most truly to the appellation of the father of experimental philosophy. His comprehensive mind surveyed, at a glance, the whole region of science, examined the foundations of systems of philosophy that had hitherto palsied the natural progress of society, and at once suggested a sure and advantageous mode of cultivating knowledge. Grieved to see the students of Aristotle's system lost in a labyrinth of definitions, distinctions, and disputations, and wasting their time in speculations altogether barren and useless, he laid the foundation, by a method of experimental investigation, of that pillar of natural knowledge, which subsequent philosophers, following his example, have gone on raising and heightening—a pillar eternally to increase in height.

Whereas the philosophy of Aristotle, called the *synthetic* system, proceeds by composition, and, beginning with the parts of a subject, at length arrives at a knowledge of the whole—and consequently treats of subjects already known; that of Bacon, called the *analytic* or *inductive* system, proceeds by decomposition, considering the whole compound first in a general manner, and then leading to a more perfect knowledge of it, by resolving it into its first principles or component parts—thus at last treating of things not hitherto known—the only method capable of striking out new truths.

GALILEO GALILEI, of a noble but reduced family of Florence, was born at Pisa, and, after a liberal education, was chosen mathematical professor in the university there, 1589. Having heard of the invention of the telescope by Metius, which however displayed every object *inverted*, he applied his mind to improve that instrument, and made it at once available to the purposes of astronomy. He next constructed a microscope: and thus are we indebted to one master mind for the means of discovering, on the one hand, an immensity in minute things, scarcely less wonderful than the boundless space, and the innumerable and immeasurable moving masses on the other. The extension and divisibility of matter are thus rendered to the natural philosopher almost as unlimited as the extension and the divisibility of space are to the geometer. Galilei, by his telescope, was now led to the discovery of the satellites of Jupiter, and many other astronomical phenomena; which exciting the ire of the Aristotelians, he resigned the chair of Pisa in disgust, and accepted that of Padua, where he remained 18 years. In 1611, his countrymen becoming more sensible of his merit, Cosmo, grand duke of Tuscany, recalled him to Pisa, and re-appointed him professor, with a considerable stipend. He afterwards invited him to Florence, where he fell under the

censure of the inquisitors, for asserting the motion of the earth round the sun; and it will prove an eternal satire on this tribunal, that the philosopher was imprisoned some months for his opinion. Many years after this event, he published his dialogues on the Ptolemaic and Copernican systems; and it being clear that he favoured the latter, though he by no means expressed so much in words, he was cited to Rome, and there made to swear he would no longer teach his system. He was also ordered by the cardinal inquisitors to be imprisoned during their pleasure; but Urban VIII. mitigated the sentence, by confining him only in the palace of the Medici, and finally in his own country house in the vicinity of Florence, where he spent the remainder of his days, visited and esteemed by the most distinguished of his countrymen. He survived eight years in this retreat, devoting himself to the perfecting of his telescope; but by continual application he became blind three years before his death, which took place at 78, 1642. To Galilei we are indebted for the discovery of the sun's rotation on its axis; and it was he who first observed the inequalities on the moon's surface, who planned the accurate calculation of the longitude by the eclipses of the Medicean stars, and who most assuredly paved the way for Newton's grand discovery of gravitation, by calculating the increasing velocity of falling bodies. These he demonstrated to describe spaces according to the *squares of the times*; or, in other words, that the space fallen through in one portion of time, is exactly half that which would be described in the same time, with the velocity last acquired, continued uniformly. He also clearly showed that the motion of projectiles, such as the cannon-ball, was in the form or path of a parabola; accounting for that which every gunner practises, viz., that to hit anything, his gun must be pointed upwards, and not on a level with the object.

JOHANN KEPLER, son of an inn-keeper of Wurtemberg, held a mathematical chair at Gratz in Styria. In 1600 he settled at Prague, whither Tycho Brahe had invited him, and was introduced by the latter to the emperor Rodolph; but Tycho's jealousy kept his friend in the background till his own death, when Kepler was commanded by the emperor to finish the celebrated tables (hence called Rudolphine) begun by Tycho. But though respected for his abilities, Kepler had to struggle with poverty; and while at Ratisbon, 1630, to solicit the payment of the arrears of his pension, he was seized with a fever, and died in a few days, aged 59. Kepler's fame rests upon his discovery of the true figure of the orbits of the planets of our system. These orbits he proved to be ellipses; and he showed that the planets describe areas proportioned to their periodic times of revolution, demonstrating that the proportion existing between the periodic times of any two planets is exactly the sesquiquilate (ratio of *one half*) proportion of the mean distances of their orbits: in other words, the squares of the times are as the cubes of the mean distances. These discoveries, three in amount, are called 'Kepler's laws;' and the philosopher's joy when he had established them was natural enough, fruits as they were of more than 20 years' laborious inquiry.

JOHN NAPIER, baron of Merchiston, was born at Edinburgh; and after an education at St. Andrews, devoted himself to mathematical studies. Desirous of finding out a short method of calculating triangles, sines, tangents, &c., he hit upon the important discovery of *Logarithms*, 1614; and he also made considerable improvements in trigonometry — what are called 'Napier's two rules,' including every striking variety of solution of spherical triangles. Logarithms are the indices of the ratios of numbers to one another, being a series of numbers in arithmetical progression, corresponding to others in geometrical

progression; and were invented to facilitate the solution of astronomical problems, which, having required tedious multiplications and divisions, were thus worked by the easier methods of addition and subtraction. Napier, during the infancy of algebra, acting upon the suggestion of Archimedes, assumed that all numbers were powers of one given number; and thereupon, with a master mind, discovered a method by which the indices of those powers might be found. Lord Napier died, aged 67, 1617.

MIGUEL CERVANTES, born at Alcalá de Henares in Spain, went as a common soldier under Colonna in Italy, and lost his left hand at the battle of Lepanto. On giving up Colonna's service, he returned towards Spain; but was captured on his way thither by a Barbary corsair, and carried into Algiers, where he remained a prisoner five years. At length, by some means his ransom was effected, and he reached Madrid; where he had originally acquired some poetical reputation, which was now augmented by his pastoral of 'Galatea,' 1584. For some years little is known of him, except that he married, continued an author, and was finally lodged in jail for debt. The fact of his writing 'Don Quixote' in this forlorn situation, forms another striking example of the frequent infelicity of genius. The first part of this admirable production was printed 1605, and the sale was prodigious. It was read by all ranks and ages; and the fame of it quickly reaching foreign countries, it was rapidly translated into the principal languages of Europe. With respect to the author, it appears to have liberated him from prison, and to have obtained him the patronage of the count de Lemos; but little seems to have been done for him, as he soon relapsed into his habitual indigence, wherein he continued till his decease, at the age of 70, 1617. 'Don Quixote,' purposing as it did to satirize the numerous Spanish works of knight errantry, has given the epi-

thet of 'cervantic' to a modification of humour irresistibly catching by its assumptive gravity, and graceful management of the comic and ridiculous. The book is not only a naturalized classic of all languages, but is esteemed by the Spaniards their first production. Mr. Inglis, in a recent visit to the scenery of Don Quixote's adventures, thus writes: 'I may safely say that I never mentioned Don Quixote to a muleteer, or a peasant of any condition, without finding myself understood; and I think I may go so far as to assert, that I never found any one unacquainted with the name of Cervantes. I should certainly say that the popularity of any one author in any other country is absolutely nothing in comparison with the popularity of Cervantes in Spain.'

ROBERTO BELLARMIN was born at Monte Pulciano in Tuscany; and having entered the Jesuits' college, his reputation caused him to be sent into the Netherlands, 1568, to oppose the progress of the reformers. After a residence there of seven years, during which he held the divinity chair at Louvain, he returned to Italy, and was made a cardinal for his piety and unequalled attainments, by Clement VIII. In 1602 he was created archbishop of Capua, and would have been raised to the popedom, had he not been a Jesuit. The friendship of Paul V. induced him to resign his see and return to Rome; which he once more quitted to retire to a monastery of his order, wherein he soon after died, aged 79, 1621. Bellarmin stands at the head of the controversialists of the Romish church; and though one of the smallest men on record, so powerful was his eloquence, and so formidable his pen, that there was scarcely a man of talent among the protestants, who did not enter the lists against him. He was but slightly tinctured with supererogatory points of belief; and scarcely differs from St. Augustine in essentials.

RICHARD HOOKER, styled 'the judicious,' was born at Heavitree, De-

von, and educated, at bishop Jewel's expense, at Corpus Christi, Oxford, of which he became fellow 1577. In 1584, he obtained the living of Drayton-Beauchamp, Bucks; and Sandys, bishop of London, procured for him the mastership of the Temple, 1585, which, on account of the opposition of Travers, the afternoon lecturer, a violent Calvinist (who so far forgot his duty as to attack his coadjutor in the pulpit), he was allowed to exchange, 1591, for the rectory of Boscomb, Wilts. In 1595, the queen gave him the rectory of Bishopsbourne, Kent. His death occurred of fever, through a cold caught in crossing between London and Gravesend by water, in his 47th year, 1600. The fame of Hooker rests upon his 'Ecclesiastical Polity,' which even pope Clement VIII. had no sooner perused, than he exclaimed, 'At last have I found a good English writer; and him not simply good, but most deep; for there is no learning that this man hath not dived into.' Time has by no means dimmed the lustre of a production, written professedly to defend the church of England against the attacks of puritans; and while its glowing, pure, and elevated style constitutes it a classic work of our land, its sentiments of piety and holiness will secure its endurance, until the last fire shall devour all humane and physical learning.

WALTER RALEIGH was born of an ancient family at Budley, Devon, and educated at Oriel College, Oxford. At 17, he made one in a body of volunteers to aid the Huguenots in France; next went under general Morris to assist the Dutch; and then, after a voyage with his half-brother Sir Humphrey Gilbert, to Newfoundland, distinguished himself against the Irish rebellion of Desmond, who was supported by Spain. For this last service, he was joined in a commission for the government of Munster, and rewarded by a considerable estate in Ireland. His favour at the court of Elizabeth was much advanced by an act of gallantry, par-

ticularly adapted to flatter and excite the attention of that sovereign. While attending the queen in a walk, among a crowd of courtiers, the party came to a spot in which the path was obstructed by mire; whereon Raleigh, to prevent Elizabeth soiling her feet, took off his rich plush cloak, and spread it on the ground before her. In 1583, he sailed again with his brother Gilbert in an expedition to Newfoundland; soon after discovered Wiganadoa, in North America, and called it Virginia, in honour of his virgin mistress; in a second and third voyage to the same continent, settled flourishing colonies thereon; and on returning from a fifth expedition thither, introduced both tobacco and the potato-plant into Europe. In the mean time his personal consequence increased at home, having been chosen member for Devon 1584, knighted by Elizabeth, and made warden of the Stannaries in Cornwall. He was also rewarded by a large share of the forfeited Irish estates; and he secured so high a degree of the queen's favour, that the earl of Leicester became jealous of him, and brought forward the earl of Essex as a competitor. He was one of the council to whom the consideration of the best means of opposing the Spanish Armada was entrusted; and was among the number of gallant volunteers who joined the English fleet with ships of their own, and assisted in its defeat. In 1589, he accompanied Antonio, the expelled king of Portugal, in his attempt to reinstate himself, for which service he received additional emolument; for though fond of glory, he was almost equally so of gain. In 1592, he commanded an expedition with a view of attacking Panama; but was recalled by the queen, and soon after incurred her deep displeasure by an amour with one of her maids of honour, the daughter of Sir Nicholas Throckmorton. He made the best reparation in his power by marrying that lady, but was nevertheless imprisoned for some months, and then banished the queen's presence.

In order to recover favour, he planned an expedition to Guiana, 1595, and reached the great river Orinoco; but was obliged by sickness and contrary winds to return, after having merely taken formal possession of the country in the name of Elizabeth. In 1596, he had so far regained favour, that he had a naval command under Essex, in the attack on Cadiz; during which service a difference ensued, that laid the foundation of a lasting enmity between the earl and Sir Walter. The latter was subsequently fully restored to the good graces of Elizabeth, who nominated him to the government of Jersey; and he subsequently witnessed the ruin of Essex, whose execution he indecently urged, and personally viewed from a window in the armoury. The decease of the queen, which this catastrophe hastened, put a period to Raleigh's prosperity; and James I., on coming to the throne, resented the exertions which he made, with other courtiers, to restrain his attempts to bring his Scottish subjects into power, by depriving him of his post of captain of the guard. A conspiracy to place lady Arabella Stuart on the throne being soon after detected, Raleigh was accused by the unprincipled lord Cobham of being a party, and even to the surprise of the attorney-general Coke, who declared he had only charged him with misprision of treason, was sentenced to death; but he was afterwards reprieved, and committed to the Tower. Though his estates were in general preserved to him, Carr, the infamous minion of James, seized on his fine manor of Sherborne, upon a flaw found in his prior conveyance of it to his son. After 13 years' confinement, during which he composed his 'History of the World,' he was released, 1617, by the advance of a large sum of money to the new favourite Villiers; and, to retrieve his broken fortunes, he planned another expedition to America. He obtained a patent under the great seal for making a settlement in Guiana, whereby James virtually pardoned

him for his part in the conspiracy connected with Arabella Stuart; nevertheless, on his return in 1618 unsuccessful, the king most tyrannically and unjustly ordered his immediate death, by virtue of his former sentence. He was accordingly arrested, and returned to the Tower; and his last night was occupied in letter-writing, an interview with his wife, and the composition of some English verses—the latter having been his constant resource when agitated in mind. The dean of Westminster, wondering at the hero, reprehended the lightness of his manner; but Raleigh gave God thanks that he had never feared death, and that he had so much time as 13 years given him to think of it: 'not,' said he, 'but that I am a great sinner, and have need of pardon; for I have been a soldier, a seaman, and a courtier.' On the morning of his execution, he smoked as usual his favourite tobacco; and in going from the prison to the scaffold, he saw his old friend, Sir Hugh Beeston, shut out by the sheriff from witnessing his execution. 'Never mind, Beeston,' cried Raleigh, 'I am sure to have a place.' Perceiving an old baldheaded man anxious to speak to him, he inquired his wish; and when the person replied, 'he only desired to see him, and to pray to God for him,' the knight, who had on a richly embroidered nightcap, took it from his head, and placed it upon that of the stranger, saying, 'Take this to remember me; for thou hast more need of it than I.' He ascended the scaffold with cheerfulness, called certain lords nearer to him, addressed them, and, in his old courtly style, affectionately embraced them, observing, 'I have now a long journey to go, and must take my leave.' Having taken off his black velvet nightgown, satin doublet, and lace ruff, he called to the executioner to show him the axe; which not being instantly done, he repeated, 'I prithee let me see it.' On receiving it, he said, 'Think not I am afraid of this: it is a sharp medicine, but a

sound cure for all diseases.' Having kissed the instrument, he called on the people to pray with him and for him more than once, and then laid himself upon the block to see if it would fit him. At this moment the executioner, awed by his magnanimity, threw himself upon his knees, and implored his pardon. Raleigh, with an embrace, desired him to rise, and said, 'I freely forgive thee, poor soul: but have a care—and when I lift up my hand *so*, fear not, but strike!' He immediately laid his head upon the block, and was some minutes employed in private prayer; during which the headsman became so affected, that, when the hero gave the appointed signal, he struck at random. Raleigh, upon this, wounded as he was, put forth his hands and exclaimed, 'Strike, man! why dost thou not strike?' Although two more blows were required to decapitate him, he shrank not, nor moved; and when his head fell, a murmur of horror passed through the vast assembled crowd. This disgraceful tragedy occurred in Old Palace-yard, Oct. 29, 1618, the knight being in his 67th year.

BENJAMIN JONSON, son of a divine, was born in Westminster, and educated some time in the school there under Camden. The imprudent remarriage of his mother with a bricklayer, altered his plan of life; and he was taken from school to work at his step-father's business. He however avoided this degradation by enlisting as a soldier; and having raised a little money by his brave conduct in the Netherlands, he came home, and entered at St. John's, Cambridge. Compelled to quit the university through his narrow means, he joined the players at an obscure theatre in London, called *The Curtain*; but on killing a brother actor in a duel, he was imprisoned for 12 years, during which he turned catholic. On his release, he resolved to write for the stage; and Shakspeare, who had felt the force of Dido's '*non ignara mali*,' is said to have become his patron, by appearing himself in some of his cha-

acters. According, however, to the received notion of the quality of the great bard's acting, this could hardly have done Jonson much service; and we must look rather to the efforts of his own muse being suited to the public taste, since his dramatic works at length introduced him to the court, for which he wrote masques, and in return for which he was made poet-laureat after Daniel, 1619, with a salary of 100 merks. He had just previously been imprisoned, and likely to lose his nose and ears, for libelling some of the Scottish parasites of the court. The poet however was careless, and remained poor till the period of his decease, at the age of 63, 1637. The only superior plays of Jonson are his *Volpone*, *Epicene*, and *Alchymist*, wherein, though the characters are those of a day, much discrimination, wit, and invention are exhibited. In tragedy he was ponderous and grandiloquent, and in comedy low and often unnatural. Yet his dramatic works were in vogue for a full century after his decease; when, on a sudden, the *nature* of those of his friend Shakspeare, fresh in all time, burst forth like the sun, and though till then wholly disregarded, threw the productions of Jonson for ever into shade.

WILLIAM CAMDEN, born in London, was educated at Christ's Hospital and St. Paul's schools, and at Christ Church, Oxford. In 1574 he was chosen second master of Westminster school; and while in that capacity, compiled in his leisure hours the '*Britannia*,' or History of the Ancient Britons, a Latin production which has established his fame as an antiquary. On its publication, Piers, bishop of Salisbury, gave the author a stall in his cathedral, though he never was in orders—prebends being, by canon law, not spiritual, but simply ecclesiastical appointments. In 1593 he succeeded to the head of Westminster school; but in 1597 resigned that laborious post to become Clarendieux in the Herald's College, an employment more congenial with

his taste. He died, aged 72, 1623, and was buried with great pomp in Westminster Abbey.

HUGO GROOTIUS, or Hugh de Groot, born at Delft in Holland, studied at the Hague and Leyden, and in 1598 went with Barneveldt's embassy to France; where Henri IV. presented him with his portrait and a gold chain, and the university of Paris made the learned youth (only 16) a doctor of laws. He pleaded his first cause as a lawyer at Delft, 1600, and though scarcely 17, commanded general applause by his eloquence and extensive information. In 1603 he was appointed historiographer to the Dutch states; and in 1613 was chosen, for defending the right of his nation to trade to the East, and for asserting the ancient independence of his country from the Roman yoke and from the modern usurpation of Spain, pensionary of Rotterdam. In 1614, he obtained a seat in the states-general; but when religious disputes began in Holland, he, by siding with the Arminians, and advocating toleration, gave offence to prince Maurice, and was, with Barneveldt and Hoogarbets, brought to trial for heresy, 1618. Barneveldt was executed, and the other two were doomed to perpetual imprisonment; but after a captivity of two years, De Groot, by means of his wife, effected his escape. On pretence of removing some books from his prison, which she declared proved injurious to her husband's health, she was permitted to send away a small chest of drawers, wherein he lay in a space of three feet and a half by two feet; and thus, carried by two soldiers from the fortress of Louvestein, the chest was removed to Gorcum on horseback, and at the house of a friend the prisoner was set at liberty, and immediately escaped, disguised in the dress of a mason, to Antwerp, and thence to Paris. His apology for his conduct appeared in 1622; but it was received with such indignation by the states-general, that a decree was issued to seize the of-

fending author wherever he could be found. The death of Maurice of Holland made no change in the politics of the Dutch, and the next stadtholder, Frederick Henry, professed the same enmity against the exiled sufferer; but at last the confiscation was removed from his property, and in October 1631 he ventured to revisit Holland. Dread of renewed persecution induced him, 1633, to accept the invitation of count Oxenstiern to Sweden; where he for nine years acted in the Swedish ministry, high in queen Christina's favour. At the expiration of that time, the jealousy of some courtiers made him sigh for a calmer life. But such a choice was denied him; for having embarked, with Christina's permission, for Lubec, he was wrecked on the coast of Pomerania, and died at Rostock on the day after his reaching land, aged 62, 1645. Grotius's great work is on the Right of Peace and War; but his book on the Truth of the Christian Religion is best known and esteemed in England.

JACOB ARMINIUS, properly Harmensen, born at Oudewater in Holland, lost his parents by the Spanish massacre at that place; and after travelling in Switzerland and Italy, was ordained minister of Amsterdam, 1588. When subsequently professor of divinity at Leyden, he originated the Arminian sect, which maintains as its distinctive tenet, 'that man is made by God a free agent; and that though providence beforehand decrees his salvation or damnation, they totally depend upon his own uninfluenced action'; a doctrine directly opposed to the Calvinistical tenet of predestination. A life of perpetual labour, added to vexation of mind through the opposition of Gomar and others, who occasioned him to be repeatedly called before the states-general to give an account of his doctrine, brought Arminius to the grave, aged 49, 1609; and on his death-bed he solemnly testified 'that he had with simplicity and sincerity of heart en-

deavoured to discover the truth by searching the Scriptures, and had never preached nor taught any thing which he did not believe to be contained therein.

THE TWO SOCINI.—Lælius Socinus was born at Siena in Italy, and after studying civil law, embraced Arianism, and removed to Zurich; where he notwithstanding became the friend and associate of the reformers Calvin, Beza, and Melancthon. At length Calvin severely reproved his heterodox opinions; and fearful of a fate like that of Servetus, he commenced travelling about the continent, but returned to die at Zurich, aged 37, 1562. His peculiar notions were immediately taken up by *Faustus Socinus*, his nephew, then a youth of 20, the scene of whose labours was Poland; but being regarded as opposing many of the notions of his uncle, he was persecuted by the Arians, and obliged to take refuge in the neighbourhood of Cracow, where he died, aged 62, 1604. The tenets of the young Socinus are those now adopted by the Socinians or Unitarians; who maintain that Christ did not exist before he was born of the Virgin Mary, that he was a mere man, that the Holy Ghost is no distinct person, and that the Father alone is properly God. They explain away the doctrine of redemption, and therefore deny the existence of original sin and of grace. They affirm that the soul sleeps in death with the body, and that both will again rise together either to felicity or punishment; but that while future felicity is eternal, the punishments of hell-fire are proportioned in duration to the offences of the former.

JULIUS CÆSAR, born at Tottenham, Middlesex, was the son of Cesare Adelmare, an Italian, (physician to both Mary and Elizabeth), and graduated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford. Under Elizabeth, he rose to be master of requests, judge of the admiralty, and master of St. Catherine's Hospital; and in James's reign he was knighted, made chancellor of the

exchequer, and in 1614 master of the rolls; which last office he held 22 years, until his decease, aged 79, 1636. Sir Julius was remarkable for his extensive bounty and charity. He resided in a house at Mitcham, Surrey, part of which is still existing, near to the spot on which a house of Raleigh's lately stood; and there his father had entertained Elizabeth, on his coming of age, for a day and a night, 1578, just before her setting off for Kenilworth, at an expense of 700*l.*, money of that day. From a room in the same house, Dean Donne, as recorded by Isaak Walton, wrote as from 'his hospytall at Micham.' Sir Julius's valuable legal MSS. fell into the hands of a cheesemonger as waste paper; but were redeemed by the happy discovery of Mr. Paterson, 1757, and sold for 500*l.*

GEORGE HERIOT (1563—1624) son of a respectable goldsmith, was born at Edinburgh; and all that is known of his early life amounts to his marriage (on which occasion he received from his father and his wife's dowry the total sum of 214*l.*), and his entrance into the goldsmith's company, 1588. In 1597 he was appointed the queen's goldsmith; and wealth must now have flowed in upon him rapidly, for in about ten years his accounts against the queen for jewels, &c. amounted to nearly 40,000*l.*! At this period the available wealth of noble families generally consisted of plate and gems; consequently the goldsmith's was a profitable calling. In addition to this, the disturbed condition of the times rendered it frequently necessary for the possessors of such property to use it as a pledge for securing the repayment of monies they were compelled to borrow. In such cases the goldsmiths were the usual bankers. Heriot's good fortune next established him as the king's goldsmith; and at the union of the crowns, he accompanied James to England. Here his career was one of uninterrupted prosperity; and here he died, a rich man, aged 61,

1624. After providing for his two daughters, Heriot left 23,625*l.* in trust to the magistrates of his native city to build an hospital there, 'in imitation of the glorious worke of Chryste's Hospitall, London, to be an Hospitall and Seminairie of Orphans, for eddification, nourishment, and bringeing up of youth, being fatherlesse childern of decaied burgeses and freemen of the saide burgh, &c.' In the first year 40 boys were admitted; and at the present period 180 receive the benefit of Heriot's benevolent bequest, in a fine Gothic building, situated on a pleasant rising ground near the castle of Edinburgh.

HENRY GARNET, son of a school-master, was born at Nottingham, and educated as a protestant at Winchester College, but did not proceed to Oxford. While apprenticed in London to a law-printer, he turned catholic, and at the expiration of his indentures travelled to Rome, where he entered the Jesuits' Society, 1575. So greatly did he distinguish himself there as an Hebraist and mathematician, that he was in 1586 appointed to the English mission, and in two years after made Superior of the English Jesuits, the duties of which office he discharged with zeal and punctuality. Having been concerned in the treasonable intrigue with the king of Spain before the death of Elizabeth, he purchased an indemnity on the accession of James I.; and being intimate with many of those engaged in the gunpowder plot, he was, on its discovery, seized (with Oldcorne, another Jesuit), tortured, and finally hanged in London (as Oldcorne was at Worcester), 1606, at the age of 51. Garnet denied any participation in the plot, though he admitted a knowledge of it by the statement of a conspirator during confession; and having so obtained his information, he thought it his duty to conceal it. He died with great fortitude; and much difference of opinion afterwards existing as to the justice of the steps taken against him, many works were

written both in his defence and in approval of his death. The post held by Garnet necessarily subjected him to suspicion; and proscribed as the catholics were at the time, no man could be at the head of the Jesuits and expect security.

HENRY BRIGGS (1556—1630), born at Halifax, Yorkshire, completed his education at St. John's, Oxford, of which he became fellow. When Gresham College was established, he was appointed its first professor of geometry, and soon became distinguished by his efforts to improve the scale of logarithms (then just invented) by changing the hyperbolic form of the inventor to that in which one should be the ratio of ten to one. To effect this, he paid a visit to lord Napier, the discoverer, in Scotland; and the result was the publication, 1624, of his *Arithmetica Logarithmica*, containing the logarithms of 30,000 natural numbers to 14 places of figures besides the index. Though Cardan and others had prepared the way, Mr. Briggs was the first to announce in this great work the law by which the co-efficients are formed in the involution of a binomial quantity to any integer power; a principle which has subsequently been so much extended, and has acquired so much importance. Besides being the founder of the binomial theory, and of the differential method, Mr. Briggs drew up valuable tables of logarithms, sines, and tangents, for the whole quadrant, &c., all comprised in his *Trigonometria Britannica*. He had been chosen Savilian professor of geometry in his university 1619; and died in his college, highly respected for his piety as well as talents, aged 74, 1630.

LANCELOT ANDREWES, after an education at Merchant Tailors', London, entered at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge. His abilities were made known to Walsingham, secretary to Elizabeth; who procured for him the living of St. Giles, Cripplegate, and a prebend in St. Paul's. He was afterwards master of his college; and he

gained the favour of James I. so much by his pulpit eloquence, that the monarch employed him to defend his kingly right against the attack of Bellarmine, who had assumed the name of Matthew Tortus. Andrewes supported his cause with spirit in his 'Tortura Torti,' and was rewarded with the see of Chichester, 1605. He was afterwards removed to Ely, and thence to Winchester; but though he enjoyed court favour, he did not forget his independence as an Englishman. When James wished to know the sentiments of his privy councillors with respect to raising money without parliament, Andrewes firmly represented the advantages which both king and subject derived from mutual concession. The prelate died, aged 61, 1626. He is now best known by his *Manual of Devotions*, written in Greek, but since often seen in an English dress; a valuable Christian enchiridion, which teaches how we may, amid all the tumult of worldly occupations, pray without ceasing, think constantly upon God, and cheerfully bear in mind, as one of the most powerful incentives to virtue, the poet's epiphonema, *Τὸ θάνατον γὰρ μερὰ πάντα*—we have at last to die.

THE BLOEMARTS were a father and four sons, all painters or engravers of eminence. *Abraham* (1567—1647), the father, was born at Gorcum, in Holland; and painting history and landscape, was much admired for his folds of drapery in the former, and for his colouring in the latter. The figures in his historical pictures are as large as life, a common error of the Dutch school; and the costume is Dutch, even in sacred subjects, many of his works being still in the churches of Brussels and Mechlin. He was also clever with the etching-needle; and his most esteemed prints are executed in chiaroscuro, and have their outlines, contrary to the usual process, not cut upon blocks of wood, but etched on copper. He died at Utrecht, aged 80, 1647. *Cornelius* (1603—1685), his youngest son, born at Utrecht,

confined himself to engraving; and after visiting Paris, 1630, spent the remainder of his life at Rome. He signalized himself by a talent unknown before, of effecting an insensible gradation from light to shadow, and by introducing a delicate variety of tints in the different distances of subjects. *Cornelius* died at Rome, aged 82, 1685.

LOPE DE VEGA was born at Madrid, and after acting as secretary to the duke of Alva, served in the Armada against England. The death of his wife greatly affected him: nevertheless he married a second time, 1620, and then devoted his hours to every species of poetical composition, including the drama, with such an astonishing celerity of production, that his mental fertility, without ample authority, would be scarcely credible. On account of his inventive power in the construction of plots, and his faculty of pouring out verse without stint or premeditation, Lope is regarded as the parent of the modern continental drama: otherwise, he is more remarkable for the quantity than the lofty character of his effusions. On occasion, however, he merits all praise. Though possessed of a large income, by the patronage of popes and princes, he was often needy, through his improvident and indiscriminate charities. On the death of his second wife he took holy orders, and became an honorary brother of St. Francis; and his death occurred through his religious austerities, at the age of 73, 1635. His funeral ceremonial lasted nine days; and all the pulpits of Spain, and all the poets of the age, vied in eulogistic tributes to his memory.

HUGH MYNDELTON, born at Denbigh, settled as a goldsmith in London, and formed the project of supplying that city with pure water. At a cost which seriously impaired his fortune, he brought the united streams of two rivulets in the parishes of Ware and Amwell, Herts, through a course of 20 miles to the capital; a work called 'The New

River,' begun 1608, and concluded 1613, in which year the water was brought into the great cistern at Islington. King James created the projector a baronet, and Charles I. afterwards placed a moiety of the money paid to the crown for its aid by sir Hugh, in the hands of trustees for his benefit, and that of his heirs. This annuity sir Hugh, who died 1636, left to the other proprietors of the New River speculation; and it is now a source of princely fortune to them. His own share in the undertaking he left to the goldsmiths' company, London, for the benefit of their poor.

PIETRO PAOLO, or Father Paul, chief of the monastic order of Servites at Venice, was made visitor of convents throughout Italy; but on being accused by enemies to the pope of entertaining heretical notions, he returned to Venice, where the senate protected him on finding some assassins had, in the night, attempted his destruction. He became celebrated as a writer throughout Europe, and is now best known by his History of the Council of Trent, and a valuable work on Benefices. He died at Venice, aged 71, 1623.

DR. JOHN BULL, organist of the chapel royal, on being made chamber-musician to James I., played before that king on July 16, 1607, at Merchant Tailors' Hall, an anthem he had composed to commemorate the escape from the gunpowder-plot, which at once became the national anthem of 'God save the King.' Bull died at Lubec, 1622. (*See Arne.*)

FAMIANI STRADA, born at Rome, became a Jesuit, and the elegant author of a Latin history of the wars in the Netherlands, 1558—1590, and of 'Prousiones Academicæ,' in one of which he successfully imitates the style of the most distinguished Roman poets. He died, aged 77, 1649.

FRANÇOIS DE MALHERBE, regarded as one of the best French poets, was born at Caen, and patronized by Henri IV. He died, aged 72, 1628. Malherbe's productions are brief, con-

sisting of odes, epigrams, and some devotional pieces, remarkable for pathos, and correctness of numbers. So great a stickler was he for correctness of expression, that, the instant before his death, he told his nurse of an error she had committed in speech while addressing him.

THE ELZEVIERS, printers at Amsterdam and Leyden, were five brothers, of whom Lewis, the eldest, became celebrated 1595, both for the neatness of his 'small character,' and for marking the distinction between *v* consonant, and *u* vowel. The type of each, the smallest then constructed, was long considered as taking the lead in press matters. Daniel Elzevir, a son of one of the brothers, was the last of his family remarkable for an attention to type; and he died 1681.

JACOB BØHMEN, founder of the sect of Illuminati, was born in Lusatia, and bred a shoemaker. All Germany seemed inclined to listen to the reveries of one who declared he was often carried up into heaven; and his tenets, which were for the most part connected with mystical notions, were adopted subsequently by Swedenborgians, Quietists, and Quakers. William Law, the able author of the 'Serious Call to a Devout and Holy Life,' became a believer in Bøhmen's sanctity, and published an English edition of his works. Bøhmen died at the hour of his own prediction, which added greatly to his celebrity, 1624.

JACQUES DE THOU, or Thuanus, born at Paris, was early ordained, and held church preferment under his uncle, the bishop of Chartres; but eventually gave up the clerical profession to become, first, a diplomatist under Henri II., and then director of the finances under Henri IV. and Mary de Medici, contriving to go unscathed through the contest of the League. He died, aged 64, 1617, and is now known for his History of his Own Times (1545—1608), in pure and classical Latin, a work admirable for its fidelity and impartiality.

SANCTORIUS, a physician of Padua, born at Capo d'Istria, is known for his curious experiments on insensible perspiration, made on himself; whereby he ascertained with accuracy what the human frame gains in a given time by aliment, and loses by secretions and excretions. The result of his observations may be found in his 'Ars de Staticâ Medicinâ.' He died at Venice, aged 75, 1636.

LEWIS DE MOLINA, a Jesuit of noble family in Castile, was born at Cuença, and filled the chair of theology at Ebro 23 years with great reputation. On being charged with the heresy of Pelagius, as appearing in his book 'De Concordiâ Gratiae et Liberi Arbitrii,' a tremendous paper-war ensued, and lasted some years, between the Dominicans and Jesuits; so that in 1607 Leo XI. issued a bull to put an end to it. Molina died at Madrid, aged 65, 1600.

THOMAS HARRIOT, born at Oxford, and educated at St. Mary's Hall there, became an inmate of Raleigh's family, and his tutor in mathematics. He was one of those sent by Sir Walter in 1585 to settle the colony of Virginia; subsequently became a tutor to the sons of Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland (then a prisoner as well as Raleigh in the Tower), and died librarian of Sion College, London, 1621, aged 61. He made the greatest advance recorded in the science of algebra, being the first to give a complete development of the apparently very simple truth, to which Vieta and others had been making approaches, the formation of general equations of all degrees by the multiplication together of as many simple equations as amount to their dimension, or the highest power of the unknown quantity involved; including, of course, the case where one or more of such factors is an equation of a higher degree than the first, but where, in general, the number of factors is such that the sum of their dimensions is the dimension of the resulting equation. Harriot was also the first to introduce the small

Italic letters, in lieu of Roman capitals, thus bringing the notation into almost exactly its present form.

JOHN BAPTIST GUARINI, born at Ferrara, was employed in embassies by Alfonso II., duke of Ferrara; in one of which to Turin, he exhibited, at the nuptials of the duke of Savoy with the sister of Philip III. of Spain, his dramatic pastoral of 'Pastor Fido,' which ranks highest in that class of Italian composition. Guarini quarrelled with his patron Alfonso, and died in the service of the grand duke of Tuscany, aged 70, 1612.

JOHN MARIANA, a Jesuit of Castile, who lived chiefly at Toledo, was author of the only complete History of Spain, which he wrote both in Latin and Spanish; the latter being regarded by his countrymen as one of the finest compositions in their language. Mariana was an extraordinary radical, advocating the rights of the people as paramount over those of sovereigns; and so much was it believed that a tract of his induced Ravailac to murder Henri IV., that it was burned at Paris publicly, by order of the parliament. He died, aged 87, 1624.

THE CARACCI, three celebrated painters of the Lombard school, born at Bologna. Augustino and Annibale were brothers, and sons of a tailor; and Ludovico, their cousin, was son of a butcher. Ludovico had his cousins among his pupils; and, by studying the greatest masters, laid the foundation of a school renowned for design and colouring, and for the great genius of its students. Annibale adorned the galleries of cardinal Farnese at Rome, and in that labour has established an immortal fame; Ludovico filled the churches of Bologna and its neighbourhood with his productions; and Augustino worked for both palaces and sacred fanes, his most admired piece being the communion of St. Jerome at Bologna. Augustino died, aged 45, 1602; Annibale, aged 48, 1609; and Ludovico, aged 63, 1619. Antonio, the natural son of Augustino, became equally celebrated, and died, aged 35, 1618.

But while the school of the Caracci was giving the last great elevation to historical painting, a countervailing power was gaining strength, which was to bring down the fine arts of design, pictorial and sculptural, to a level, which they soon acquired, with the mere useful and necessary arts of life. Painters and sculptors, before the 17th century had closed, declared their professions degraded and despised; and unable to assign the cause, they placed it to the account of a sudden and general decline of taste. The ground, however, is obvious enough to the historian; and the two master-wheels of the change must ever be regarded printing and the Reformation. As the fields of knowledge were opened to the great mass by the one, men ate greedily of the fruit of the trees therein, and found themselves, like their first parents, *naked* and unhappy. Wants sprang up which previously had no existence; the reign of fancy and of imagination was no more. The arts of design, which had been established on men's profound veneration for things sacred, for those glimpses only of scripture narration and revelation which the Church had hitherto permitted, tottered to their base when the Reformation allowed the learned and the ignorant, the initiated and the catechumen, to enter within the veil, and explore every recess and nook and corner of the holy of holies with inquiring and most unrighteous gaze. The earliest successful painters, worthy of the name, resorted entirely to the known facts of the Bible for subjects; they moreover believed firmly in them, as well as in the recorded miracles of the saints. This belief alone enabled the genius of a Raffaele and a Michael Angelo to reach those topmost heights, such as no unbelieving artist since has

clomb. The Caracci school, however, with its elegance of colour and design, made a last great effort to rouse the now learned vulgar to a sympathy for the feelings of by-gone days, and for a time succeeded: but as the members of that association declined in faith, and increased in knowledge and scepticism, so in proportion faded their genius and their power of art, till at last, when a West, in modern days, attempted single-handed a similar restoration, he was derided, and regarded with coldness even by his brother artists, for expecting success from an undertaking so truly ultra-montane.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1603, Ahmed I.; 1617, Mustafa I.; 1618, Osman II.; 1622, Mustafa I. restored; 1623, Morad IV. POPES.—1592, Clement VIII.; 1605, Leo XI. and Paul V.; 1621, Gregory XV.; 1623, Urban VIII. FRANCE.—1589, Henri IV.; 1610, Louis XIII. SWEDEN.—1592, Sigismund III.; 1604, Charles IX.; 1611, Gustavus II. Adolphus. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1588, Christiern IV. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.—1598, Philip III.; 1621, Philip IV. GERMANY.—1576, Rodolph II.; 1612, Matthias; 1619, Ferdinand II. POLAND.—1587, Sigismund of Sweden. NAPLES.—1647—8, Masaniello. RUSSIA.—1598, Boris; 1605, Feodor II.; then Otrepief, the first false Dimitri: 1610—1613, anarchy, when Sigismund of Poland headed one party; 1613, Mikhail Feodorowitz Romanov, founder of his house. NETHERLANDS.—1584, Maurice. PERSIA.—1584, Abbas the Great. DELHI.—1556, Akber; 1605, Jehangir. HUNGARY.—1572, Rodolph II. emperor; 1608, Matthias II., emperor; 1618, Bethlem Gabor and Ferdinand II., emperor; 1625, Ferdinand III., emperor. (*See Reign of Gabor at page 151.*)

REIGN CLXV.

CHARLES I., KING OF ENGLAND.

1625 TO 1649—24 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Charles I. was born at Dumfermline, in Scotland, 1600, being the son of James I. and Anne of Denmark. His presence was prepossessing, though his aspect was melancholy. His face was regular, handsome, and well-complexioned: his body strong, healthy, and justly proportioned: and being of a middle stature, he was capable of enduring great fatigue. He excelled in horsemanship and other exercises: and possessed all the exterior, as well as many of the essential qualities which form an accomplished prince. His virtues predominated above his imperfections; for scarcely any of his faults deserve a harsher term. His dignity was free from pride, his humanity from weakness, his bravery from rashness, his temperance from austerity, his frugality from avarice. To speak the most harshly of him, his beneficent disposition was clouded by a somewhat ungracious manner; and his moderate temper exempted him not from hasty and precipitate resolutions.

The lot of Charles was cast in a period when the precedents of the Tudor reigns and his father's had laid the foundation of arbitrary power; while the genius of the people, roused by the general spread of opinions which the fall of the old church allowed, ran violently towards liberty in thinking and in acting. From the uniformity enforced by the hierarchy, all had been emancipated; and as Lutherans, Calvinists, Arminians, Zuinglians, Baptists, Presbyterians, Socinians, arose out of the body of reformers, the fickle part of mankind saw little reason why a choice should not be permitted them in political as well as in religious matters. Under the guise of superior sanctity, therefore, the puritans overturned the state; and, in the commonwealth which ensued, the tyranny of one fanatical sect took the former seat of the hierarchy. The progress of liberty from confusion to fanatical domination is evident to the commonest reader of our history, from Henry's breach with the pope to the murder of Charles I. Charles, therefore, as the one attempting to oppose the great engine, when it had reached a point of velocity which no mortal tact could stay, fell a victim to his arduous endeavour; and the mass rolled on, overwhelming church, nobility, and all that had been hitherto held sacred by the nation. If then the king's political prudence could not, in so terrible an emergency, extricate him from his perilous situation, he may be excused; the more especially when one is at a loss to determine what conduct, in his circumstances, could have maintained the authority of his crown, and restored the peace of his country. Exposed, without revenue and without arms, to the assaults of furious, implacable, and bigoted factions, it was never permitted him, but with the most fatal consequences, to commit the smallest mistake; a condition too rigorous to be imposed on the greatest human capacity.

As a domestic character, Charles was most amiable and exemplary. In his intercourse with the parliament, he was often alone opposed to the insinuating language and sophistical arguments of numerous delegates; but none ever left him without admiring his firmness, the acuteness of his remarks, the propriety of his answers, and the general intelligence and powerful elocution with which he supported his conversation. Though his enemies have attempted to rob him of the merit of writing the 'Eikon Basilike,' a pathetic composition which operated in his favour like the testament of Cæsar at Rome, and which required the abilities of a Milton to vilify it, he is now generally allowed to have been the author, and not bishop Gauden;

the king's style being peculiar, and far superior to that of the prelate. In a word, it has been said of Charles I., and without being gainsayed, that 'he was the worthiest gentleman, the best master, the best friend, the best husband, the best father, and the best Christian of the age in which he lived.' He married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henri IV. of France, 1625; and it was among the articles of contract that the children should be brought up by their mother till the age of 13, to which arrangement the future bias of Charles II. and James II. towards the old faith may be very fairly attributed. His issue were eight, three of whom died young. The five remaining were *Charles II.*; *Mary*, wife of William II. prince of Orange, and mother of our William III.; *James II.*; *Henry*, duke of Gloucester, who died a bachelor 1660; and *Henrietta Maria*, wife of Philip, duke of Anjou, and then of Orleans.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—When Charles ascended the throne, 1625, the kingdom was embroiled in the war with Spain; and both the emperor and the whole English people were at enmity with his late father's favourite, the duke of Buckingham. The first parliament which he summoned was much more ready to state grievances than to grant supplies; and there were marks of the rising power of the non-conformists in the commons, which greatly disgusted the king. No debate therein was attended to which was not of a polemical nature; and the extreme rage against popery was the distinguishing badge of the puritan members. The house petitioned for replacing such of the clergy as had been silenced for not conforming to church rites. They also enacted laws for the most rigid observance of Sunday, which they scrupulously called 'the Sabbath,' and which they affected to sanctify by melancholy looks, and a perfect indolence, instead of honouring it by a cheerful countenance, and the active exercise of works of piety. Charles, out of all patience, dissolved the parliament before it had existed a year; and by loans and other means, an expedition was fitted out of 80 vessels, great and small, against Spain. Sir Edward Cecil, lately created viscount Wimbledon, as commander, made a fruitless attack on Cadiz; and then, not to return home without the appearance of having done something, put out to sea with the hope of intercepting the Spanish galleons expected from America. But the plague seized the seamen and soldiers; and Cecil was obliged to abandon all hopes of this prize, and return to England. In 1626 a new parliament was called; but the jealousy which prevailed between the crown and that assembly laid the foundation of all Charles's subsequent misfortunes. The commons impeached Buckingham, and the king supported him. They held fast the public purse, and he intimated a design of following 'new counsels'; and he suddenly and angrily dismissed them, while they were preparing a remonstrance against the levying of tonnage and poundage without their consent. Charles's difficulties were further increased by a war with France, 1628, in gratification of the private enmity of Buckingham; who added to the odium against him by an ill-fated expedition to aid the Huguenots of Rochelle. A new parliament, in 1628, forced the king to pass into a law the Petition of Right, which recognised more than usual privileges in the subject. The assassination of Buckingham soon after removed that source of discord; but as the parliament still violently opposed the levying of tonnage and poundage, the king dissolved it, and determined to proceed without one. He accordingly put an end to the Spanish, German, and French wars, 1629, and raised Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards lord Strafford, a convert from republicanism, but a man of singular firmness and talent, to the principal place in his counsels. In church affairs he was guided by Laud, bishop of London, a prelate of great learning and piety, but zealous beyond discretion, and therefore an unfit man to aid the king in his very hazardous situation.

Several years passed away in the execution of plans for raising money

without the assistance of parliament ; while some arbitrary proceedings of Laud in the star-chamber increased the rage of the popular party. It is impossible not to perceive, at this juncture, that Charles and his advisers strove to maintain a portion of prerogative that had become incompatible with the progress of opinion ; and it is to be regretted that a little skilful concession was not used, before the respect entertained for the king's virtues was diminished. All who spoke even against the principle of raising money without a parliament were summarily punished ; until at length some daring spirits began to refuse payment for mere opposition's sake. Such of the puritans as despaired of carrying their point against the crown, emigrated to America ; and it is curious to record that, by order of the court, one ship-load of such recusants was ominously stopped, in the number of whom were John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell.

It was in 1637 that Hampden commenced the career of resistance, by refusing to pay ship-money, the right to levy which without a parliament he brought into a court of law ; and although he was nonsuited, the public caught up the affair, and determined to carry matters to the utmost extremity. It was in Scotland, however, that formal warlike opposition was destined to commence. Charles having endeavoured to introduce the English liturgy there, the most violent tumults ensued, and a 'Solemn League and Covenant' was entered into, 1638, by which all of the puritanical sects engaged to stand by each other. They even levied an army, against which the king headed an undisciplined English force, so equivocally inclined, that, not daring to trust it, he agreed to a peace. After an intermission of eleven years, Charles again assembled a parliament, 1639, which he hastily dissolved ; and he prosecuted several of its members who had distinguished themselves by their opposition. An army, which he soon after sent against the Scots, who were again rebellious, being defeated at Newburn upon Tyne, the king, when he arrived at York, notwithstanding Strafford's advice to proceed with vigour, made a treaty with the insurgent leaders, and returned to London.

Having agreed to call another parliament, 1640, that assembly, afterwards called the *Long Parliament*, was brought together, which ceased not until it had established a democracy on the ruins of monarchy. It derived its name from the king's own oversight, he having passed an act to render it perpetual, that the commons might raise money from the citizens of London ; who refused loans, unless the house should sit long enough to see them repaid. The first thing done by this assembly was to impeach the minister. Pym, a violent republican, attributing all that had been wrong in the country to the machinations of Strafford, whose bosom-friend he had formerly been, that lord was accordingly arraigned for high treason ; and after a long and eloquent speech, in which he confuted all the accusations of his enemies, was found guilty. While Charles was labouring to prevent his execution, a letter from the earl, calling upon him, in the true spirit of patriotism, to make his life the sacrifice of a mutual reconciliation between the king and the people, decided the matter ; and the earl was beheaded on Tower-hill, May 12th, 1641, behaving with that composed dignity of resolution which might have been expected from his character. The high commission court, and that of star-chamber, were now abolished ; and the king, shorn of his prerogative, became a passive spectator of the ascendancy of the commons.

In the mean time a flame burst forth in Ireland, 1641, which had no small effect in kindling the ensuing conflagration at home. The oppressed catholic population of that country seeing, in the confusion of the times, a favourable opportunity for regaining their rights, laid a plan for a general rising. They failed by an accident in Dublin ; but a dreadful massacre of the pro-

testants took place in every other part of the island. As the insurgents affected to have received a royal commission thus to punish puritanism, the English commons pretended to believe them; and inveighing against what they termed the errors of the reign, they called for the abolition of the episcopal order. So greatly did they now provoke the hitherto compliant Charles by the issuing of a 'Remonstrance,' (wherein the failure of the expeditions to Cadiz and the Isle of Rhé, and every other national misfortune was placed to the king's account,) and by annihilating his prerogative of pressing soldiers, that he attempted in person, with an armed force, to seize five of the members while sitting. As he failed, however, in his object, by the escape of the parties, he lost courage, and, with great want of tact, apologized to the house for the proceeding. The militia of the city was soon organized by the accused members; the queen fled to Holland to procure aid; and Charles and the prince of Wales hastened to York, 1641. The die was now cast. Charles was received in his progress with great demonstrations of loyalty from the gentry; and many eminent and virtuous characters, who had been his opponents in minor matters, readily joined him. On the other hand, all the puritans to a man, the inhabitants of the great trading towns, and such as had nothing to lose, sided with the parliament.

When the king was assured that the militia of London was in array under the commons, he erected his standard at Nottingham, 1642; a hostile declaration, which the parliament speedily answered. It would be tedious to record all the marchings and countermarchings of two such ill-disciplined armies as those of the king and the parliament; but a few remarks on the general character of the combat and combatants will be found useful. On the one hand, the cavaliers, as the royalists were styled by their adversaries, identified their quarrel with their honour and their love of country. They appeared, like the knights of chivalric days, with loose locks escaping from beneath their plumed helmets, their accoutrements glittering in the sun, and carrying themselves with all the martial pride which makes the battle-day like a pageant or a festival. While they pranced to and fro, as if to make a jest of death, their trumpets sounded a loud defiance. The roundheads, on the other hand (who were so called by their opponents, in derision, because of their short-cropped hair—in opposition to the curls and love-locks of the cavaliers) were seen arranged in deep masses; and with their steel caps and high-crowned hats drawn close over their brows, they looked determination. With hard-closed lips, they displayed the inly-working rage of their hearts, now blown up to furnace-heat by the extempore effusions of their preachers; and every now and then their fierce wrath found vent in the terrible denunciations of the Hebrew psalms and prophecies. The royalists regarded their adversaries with that scorn which the gay and high-born entertain for the precise and sour-mannered; while, on the other hand, the soldiers of the covenant looked on their enemies as the enemies of Israel, and considered themselves as a people especially appointed to crush them:—a creed which extinguished fear and remorse together. There was bravery and virtue in both parties: but with this high advantage on the parliamentary side,—that while the aristocratic honour of the royalists separated the patrician from the plebeian soldier in their army, the religious zeal of the puritans bound officer and man together in a fierce and resolute sympathy, and made equality itself an argument for subordination. The captain prayed at the head of his company; and the general's oration was a sermon.

When the king reviewed his forces first at Wellington, in Shropshire, he found them amount to 10,000; and if wealthy soldiers could have availed, he had a vast advantage over the parliamentary troops, one regiment of his guards

alone, under lord Bernard Stuart, having landed estates to an amount greater than the property of the then whole house of commons. Prince Rupert, son of the unfortunate palatine, was general of the king's horse, and Sir Jacob Astley of his foot; and the earl of Lindesay was over all. The parliamentary forces, then under lord Essex, amounted to at least 24,000, and were daily augmenting. The chief leaders, besides Essex, were Waller, Bradshaw, Ireton, Fairfax, Cromwell, Hampden, Lambert, and Fleetwood. London, and most of the other corporations, took part with the parliament, and adopted with zeal the democratical principles whereon the pretensions of that assembly were founded. Municipal government, republican in its nature, inclined them to this course. The small hereditary influence which can be retained over the industrious inhabitants of towns, the national independence of citizens, and the force of popular currents upon dense associations of mankind, all gave authority at this juncture to the new principles everywhere propagated; and while families enriched by trade indignantly saw themselves unable, however wealthy, to rise to a level with the ancient gentry, and were constantly reminded of the splendour and glory of the Dutch commonwealth, the commercial part of the nation in a mass desired to see a like form of government established in England.

The first battle of moment was at Keinton, or Edgehill, Warwickshire, October 23, 1642; and the victory would have been wholly on the side of prince Rupert and the king, had not the royal reserve, impatient to have some share in the action, joined in pursuing the fugitive troops of Essex. The result was a recovery of the parliamentarians from their panic, and the death of some of Charles's best officers. Essex, however, withdrew; and the king was enabled to reach Oxford, the only town in his dominions which was altogether at his devotion, if we except the whole county of Cornwall, where Sir Ralph Hopton was engaged in training the agricultural labourers for the royal service. In a skirmish at Chalgrave-field, Hampden, usually regarded as the most upright man among the roundheads, received a wound, of which he soon died; and at the battle of Newbury (all in the first campaign), Charles lost his excellent general, Lucius Cary, Lord Falkland. The fight of Marston-Moor, in which 50,000 British troops were led to mutual slaughter (July, 1644), terminated unfavourably for the king, Cromwell being therein opposed to prince Rupert, and taking his whole train of artillery. The fight of Naseby (June, 1645) closed the civil contest: for when it was known that the king had been driven off the field by the success of Cromwell, Fairfax, and Ireton, with the loss of all his ammunition and artillery, and of 5000 prisoners, the royal cause everywhere gave way. The Cornish people, had they been well supported, would probably have now effected all that was required by the king; but their troops, however loyally disposed, were too ill-disciplined to stand against the parliamentarians, and Charles came to the resolution of throwing himself into the hands of the Scottish troops, then lying before Newark.

But just before this catastrophe, the parliament, to show its animosity to the king, executed archbishop Laud, who had long been imprisoned (January 10, 1645). The same illegality as had appeared in the case of Strafford, the same violence and iniquity in conducting the trial, are conspicuous throughout the whole course of this prelate's prosecution. He died with great dignity, observing to those about him, 'No one can be more willing to send me out of life, than I am desirous to go.'

Meanwhile Charles was received with respect by the Scots (May, 1646), though placed under a guard; and a series of abortive negotiations ensuing, an agreement was most atrociously made with the parliament to surrender him to their commissioners, on the payment of a large sum claimed as arrears

by the Scottish army. The king was accordingly carried to Holmby House, Northamptonshire, under a guard, and followed by a crowd of his friends on horse and foot, who accompanied his march with tears, acclamations, and prayers for his safety. The common people, too, crowded towards him as he passed the villages, begging his blessing, and bringing their scrofulous children to be relieved by his touch. The commissioners rendered his confinement at Holmby rigorous enough, dismissing his old servants, and debarring him from the visits of his friends. But a manœuvre of Cromwell, whose sect, the Independents, was now uppermost in the parliament, put a speedy end to the incivilities of Charles's present gaolers. One Joyce, with 500 horse, arrived at Holmby, and entering the royal presence armed with pistols, told the king he must instantly go with him; and though the commissioners remonstrated, Charles was carried off to the army of the parliament at Reading, to the inexpressible surprise of Fairfax, the general, whom Cromwell had not acquainted with his design. From Reading the king was soon removed to Hampton Court. Fear of the Independents, who were known to be the most fanatical party amongst the rebels, induced the monarch to escape from Hampton to the Isle of Wight, November, 1647; where he put himself into the hands of Hammond, the governor, a creature of Cromwell's, who lodged him in Carisbrook Castle. While there, the Scots, repenting of their treachery, marched a large army towards the south to relieve him; but Cromwell wholly defeated it, while Fairfax put down similar loyal attempts in Essex and Kent. A new negotiation was now opened with the king; and Charles so nearly agreed to all the demands of the rebels, that a vote passed the commons expressive of a wish to come to terms, September, 1648. The triumphant army of Cromwell, however, just returned from the defeat of the duke of Hamilton, entered the house, and drove therefrom all the members inclined to favour the monarch, denouncing him as a traitor. As the lords refused to concur in a vote for this purpose, the commons declared their concurrence unnecessary; and Charles being conducted to London, and stripped of all the ensigns of royalty, was brought before the court of justice especially erected for so unprecedented a trial, January 20th, 1649.

The court sat in the painted chamber; and prayers were just over, when it was announced that the king, borne in a close sedan between two rows of soldiers, was approaching. Cromwell ran to a window, and as suddenly returned, pale yet highly excited, calling out, 'He is here, he is here, sirs; the hour for this grand affair draws nigh. Decide, I pray ye, what ye intend to reply; for he will instantly inquire in whose name, and by what authority, we presume to try him.' No one replying at the moment, Henry Martin at length observed, 'In the name of the commons, and of all the good people of England!' To this no objection was made, and the court adjourned to Westminster Hall, headed by Bradshaw, the president. Bradshaw took his seat in a chair of state; on the right and left were the members of the court on seats of scarlet cloth; while the guards filled the ends of the hall. The doors being thrown open, the crowd rushed in, and the prisoner was ordered to be brought forward. Under guard of Colonel Hacker, and thirty-two other officers, the king entered, walking with a gold-headed cane; and on coming to the arm-chair placed for him at the bar, he fixed a long and severe look upon the court, and then seated himself, without taking off his hat. Suddenly he rose, looked first at the guard, and then at the spectators, again fixed his eyes upon his judges, and sat down, amidst the general silence of the court. Bradshaw now rose, and calling him 'Charles Stuart,' desired him to listen to the charges to be preferred against him. The attorney-general then walked forward to recite them; when Charles, putting out his

cane, touched him on the shoulder, and cried 'Silence!' and at the same instant the gold head of the king's cane fell audibly on the ground. The monarch, who was, in common with the people of his day, swayed by superstitious notions, seemed much affected by this incident, picked up the ornament, resumed his seat, and said no more. When the attorney-general, with great bitterness, pronounced him 'a tyrant, traitor, and murderer,' the king laughed, but replied not; but when called on to plead guilty or not guilty, he refused so to do, unless informed by what authority the court ventured to sit in judgment upon him. A discussion ensuing between himself and Bradshaw on this point, the latter insolently ordered his removal; and on the next day, being in like manner brought up, the president began by saying, 'We sit by authority of the commons of England, an authority to which you are to be held responsible;' and when the king again refused to plead, he was again removed, calling out to the people, 'Bear in mind, that your king is to be condemned without being permitted to say a word in defence of his and your own liberties!'

It was on the 27th that this iniquitous court opened in the painted chamber for the last time; and the names being called over as usual, a woman's voice was heard to exclaim from the gallery, at the name of Fairfax, 'He has too much sense to be here!' When the king entered, the soldiers, incited by Axtell their commander, grossly insulted him; the people, meantime, seemed paralyzed, and said nothing. The king wished first to address the court; but Bradshaw overruled this, and was solemnly calling on all present to recollect that 'the prisoner had been brought by consent of the nation to answer for his crimes at that bar; when the same female voice called out, 'Not half the people! Oliver Cromwell is a traitor!' This courageous woman proved to be lady Fairfax herself, whom Axtell, applying to her and the other ladies present the grossest epithets, soon silenced by sending a file of soldiers into the gallery. Bradshaw then proceeded; but as the king demanded to be heard by his peers, and colonel Downs, one of the court, leaned to his request, the whole party adjourned for a time to another room, and in half an hour returned, declaring that his wish could not be complied with. Charles appeared to be subdued on hearing this, and no longer insisted with any degree of vigour. Sentence of death having then been pronounced, he attempted to speak, but was refused that privilege by Bradshaw, who called out, 'Guards, remove your prisoner.' The king, though surrounded by the soldiers, exclaimed, 'Surely, sir, with your permission, I can speak after sentence. Stay soldiers! The sentence, sir—sir, think what justice others are to expect!'—And with these words on his lips, he was hustled from the hall, many of the soldiers spitting in his face, reviling him, and more than one even striking him. One poor fellow, however, like the thief on the cross, called to Charles for his blessing, and endeavoured to allay the rancour of his companions; but Axtell, coming behind him, knocked him down: whereat the king could not help saying, 'Sir, you have assuredly visited his sin with a heavy punishment!' Many in the crowd, not soldiers, poured forth their wishes for his preservation; and the king, softened by this unexpected commiseration, warmly expressed his gratitude for their dutiful affection. When in the park again, returning to the palace of St. James's, some rude soldiers pressed upon him and shouted out 'Justice!' on which the monarch calmly observed, 'Poor souls! for a little money they would do as much against their commanders.'

The king passed the three days' interval allowed him, with great tranquillity, chiefly in reading and devotion. All his family that remained in England were permitted access to him; viz., the princess Elizabeth, and duke of

Gloucester, the former very young, and the latter nearly an infant. He desired the princess to tell her mother that he had never once, even in thought, failed in fidelity towards her; and taking the young duke on his knee, he said, 'They are going to cut off thy father's head.' At these words, the child looked very steadfastly upon him. 'Mark, child,' continued the king, 'what I say: they will cut off my head, and perhaps make thee a king: but thou must not be a king so long as thy brothers Charles and James are alive!' The little prince passionately exclaimed, 'I will be torn in pieces first!'

On the morning of his death, Jan. 30th, 1649, Charles awoke two hours before day-break, after a sound sleep of four hours. He called to Sir Thomas Herbert, who lay on a pallet by his side, and bade him rise; 'for,' said he, 'I have a great work to do this day!' He then said to an attendant, 'Let me have a shirt on more than ordinary, by reason the season is so sharp;' (it was a severe frost, so that bishop Juxon induced the king to wear a cloak till the moment of his death;) 'as, if I should shake, some observers will think it proceeds from fear. I would have no such imputation. I fear not death; for, I bless God, I am prepared!' Bishop Juxon then came, and read the church service for the day with him; and at ten o'clock colonel Hacker arrived, and entering the royal chamber, trembling from head to foot, announced that it was time to set off for Whitehall. The king cheerfully agreed to begin his last walk on earth; which was from St. James's palace, across the park to Whitehall, bishop Juxon accompanying him on one side, and colonel Tomlinson on the other, both bare-headed. Charles walked fast, and every now and then called out to the guard to walk apace. As he passed Spring-garden, he pointed to a tree, saying, 'That tree was planted by brother Henry;' and he then suddenly said to Juxon, 'I now go to strive for an heavenly crown, with less solicitude than I have often fought for an earthly one.' On reaching Whitehall, the preparations were not complete, so that he took, when offered, a glass of claret and some bread about twelve; and soon after, the bishop administered the sacrament to him.

The warrant for the execution was at length brought by Hacker, signed first by Cromwell, who had obtained the names of his adherents to the document after no small contention; having even, in his resentment, spirted the ink out of his pen over the hand and face of one of the party. In fact, it seems to have been a trifle which, after all this formal mockery of justice, turned the scale against the monarch.

With great calmness King Charles walked to the scaffold, having with him the bishop and colonel; and after addressing rather those who were around him than the people beneath (as the parliament had ordered an immense guard to keep off the people), he closed his earthly communing with a few pious observations to Juxon, and some words of caution to the executioner. Speaking to the latter (who was the common hangman, Richard Brandon, disguised by a mask), he said, 'I shall say but short prayers; and when I put out my hands, do your duty.' Then turning to the bishop, he said, 'I go from a corruptible to an incorruptible crown, where no disturbance can be.'—'You exchange, Sir,' said the prelate, 'an earthly for a heavenly crown,—a goodly exchange!' He gave his George to the bishop, saying, 'Remember!' (meaning that he was to convey it, if possible, to prince Charles); and then, fitting his head to the block, said to the executioner, 'You must set it fast.'—Soon after, he knelt down, and, having offered up a brief prayer, gave the appointed signal; whereon Brandon, at a blow, severed his head from his body, and holding it up, cried aloud, 'Behold the head of a traitor!' A dismal groan, such (says an eyewitness) as never before was heard, resounded in every direction; a vast number of persons, men and women, fainted; and

as the shrieks of the females began to preponderate, several troops of horse, marching up from Charing-cross, pressed upon the vast assembled crowd, and rapidly cleared the street before Whitehall.

The body and head were instantly put into a coffin, and conveyed first to St. James's, and thence privately to Windsor; where the usurpers of the government permitted their interment, provided the expenses of the funeral exceeded not 500*l*. The fanatical governor of the castle, however, would not suffer bishop Juxon to read the burial service on the occasion, declaring that, 'as the common prayer-book was put down, he would not suffer it to be used in the garrison under his command;' so that the coffin was placed in a grave hastily dug in St. George's chapel, near the tomb of Henry VIII., in perfect silence. Upon the coffin was a plate of silver, with the words 'King Charles, 1649;' and the velvet pall was buried with it. The king was in his 50th year.

Instantly upon the king's death, the commons voted 'that the house of lords was useless and dangerous, and therefore had ceased to exist; and that it was high treason to acknowledge Charles Stuart, son of the late king, successor to the throne.' The forms of public business were changed from being transacted in 'the king's name, to that of 'the keepers of the liberties of England.' The court of king's bench was called the court of public bench. Nay, so cautious on this head were the republican levellers, that, in reciting the Lord's Prayer, they would not say 'thy kingdom,' but 'thy commonwealth come.' The king's statue in the Exchange was thrown down;—and on the pedestal these words were inscribed: *Exit tyrannus, regum ultimus*—'the tyrant, the last of the kings, is gone.' The commons proposed to bind the princess Elizabeth apprentice to a button-maker; the duke of Gloucester was to be taught some other mechanical employment; but the former soon died of grief, as is supposed, for her father's tragical end; the latter was sent beyond sea by Cromwell.

As doubts long existed respecting the burial-place of Charles, George prince regent ordered, in his own presence, a search to be made, 1813; when the coffin, which was of lead, was found, covered by the pall. Within this was a wooden one much decayed, containing the body, wrapped in cerecloth, into the folds of which an unctuous matter had been poured. The shape of the face was perfect; the pointed beard, many of the teeth, and much of the hair remained; and the head had been severed from the body by a transverse cut through the fourth cervical vertebra. As respects the cause of Charles, the navy from the first was on the side of the commons. The Scots, after their sale of the king for 400,000*l*., repented, and sent 20,000 men to save him, as has been shown, though without effect; and the king's last fortress, Colchester, after the most heroic defence, capitulated to Fairfax, who, contrary to his accustomed lenity, sacrificed Sir Charles Lucas and Sir George Lisle, for their devotion and fidelity to the royal cause. It is a well-known fact that at one period the cause of the rebels depended on a thread; and that but for the resistance of the city of Gloucester, and its relief by the trainbands of London under lord Essex, it must have gone irretrievably to ruin.

EVENTS.

PRIEST PERSECUTIONS.—The instant that the anti-episcopal party arose in the commons, a steady persecution of the mis-called catholic portion commenced; and priests, who by stealth had returned to the country, in defiance of recent enactments for their expatriation, were especially sought out as the fittest objects of vengeance. The circumstance of both the old and the English church giving the power of absolution from sin to

their respective priests in ordination, occasioned as much hostility on the part of the puritans towards a priest as towards a prelate of either communion; and numbers were thus hanged and quartered (since burning was usually objected to as a Romish punishment) for the crime of priesthood. We have room but for one of these persecutions, that of THOMAS BULLAKER, who went to martyrdom with a spirit equal to that of any who suffered for religion. He was the son of a catholic physician of Chichester, where he was born 1604. At 18 he was sent to the college of St. Omer, and thence to the English seminary at Valladolid, where he entered the order of St. Francis. His provincial, though he had refused his proceeding as a missionary to the West Indies, allowed him the more dangerous privilege of going to his native country, where, said the father, 'you will go both to a country that has a better title to your labours, and that stands in need of them as much as the Indies can do.' With priest's orders, Bullaker accordingly landed at Plymouth, 1631, but was seized at the information of the master of the ship, and thrown into prison. When released, after some months, by the exertions of his father's friends among the court, he laboured unmolested during 11 years in different parts of the country; but, on the evident appearance of civil war, by the break of the king with the puritans, he hurried to London, 'in the hopes' (he writes) 'of more readily meeting with martyrdom there. On Sunday Sept. 11, 1642,' (he continues) 'having said as usual the litanies, and begun mass, when I had come to the *Gloria in excelsis*, the apostate Wadsworth coming into the room, seized me at the altar. I offered to take off my vestments; but he opposed it, saying, he would have me, as I was, before the sheriff of London. I urged the inconvenience that might follow to himself, as well as to me, from the mob, if he conducted me through the streets in that dress. Upon this re-

monstrance he consented that I should pull off my vestments, which he immediately seized, together with the books, &c., and then carried me, together with the lady of the house, before the sheriff. The sheriff asked me if I were a priest? I told him I was. Then said he, How durst you presume to return into England, in contempt of the laws, which prohibit priests returning hither under the severest penalties? I answered, because I was convinced those laws were not to be regarded. I added, that I believed if they went on as they had begun, they would soon make it high treason to believe in Christ; for it appeared how little regard they had to him, whose image on the cross of Cheapside they had lately so grossly abused. Some of the standers-by asked me, where Christ had commanded in the Scriptures the making of his image? I answered, that though not expressly commanded in Scripture, it was agreeable to the law of nature, to which the divine law is no way opposite, to testify our love to a person by the regard we have to his picture or image; and thus both right reason and experience show, that the affront offered to the king's image is to be looked upon as done to himself, and punished as such. (So in common and even statute law is 'burning in effigy' regarded at this day.) Then the sheriff left me, and I was carried out by a back-door into another street, by reason of the great concourse of the mob before the house, and conducted to the new prison. On Tuesday morning I was conveyed to Westminster, to be examined before a committee of parliament appointed for the purpose. When I came thither, Wadsworth brought in the vestments, &c., which he had taken, and laid them upon the table before the committee. One of them said they were but mean: the chairman gravely said, As mean as they are, they can serve for an idolatrous worship as well as the best.—What idolatrous worship, sir? said I.—Why, said he,

is it not idolatry to worship bread for God?—I replied, We worship not the bread and wine for God in the tremendous mysteries; but we worship Jesus Christ under the species of bread and wine, as the Church of God has always done from the days of the apostles. Sir William Crawley, formerly my school-fellow, said, You know, Mr. Bullaker, it is written, 'Fear God, and honour the king,' (little as the parliament were at the moment acting in the spirit of the latter injunction.)—I know it, said I; and I also know that the same parliament which made it treason to be a priest, did also by law establish the government of the king, of the Church by bishops, the common prayer, and ceremonies; all which you oppose.—True, said he; but why may we not amend what is ill-ordered before?—This, said I, is what you attempt; but assure yourself, that a parliament will come, and that the very next parliament that shall sit (which was the case), in which that religion which you now pretend to establish (*viz.* presbytery), will be rejected and thrown out. He said, I should never see that day.—I know, said I, that the time of my dissolution is at hand; but what I have foretold will certainly happen. Upon this they cried out I was a traitor, and that all their present troubles were owing to the practices of me, and such as I.—Would to God! said I, there were not in this kingdom another kind of traitors, from whom the nation has reason to fear far more real and greater dangers: for all your pretences of popish plots, I defy you to produce legal proof of any one single treasonable attempt of any catholic, from the beginning of this parliament to this present day. In conclusion, they sent my examination to the lord chief justice, and me to Newgate, in order for my trial. When I was brought to the court, in a few days, the clerk of the sessions ordered me to hold up my hand; and my indictment being read, he asked if I was guilty or not guilty.

I answered, If by guilty you mean a criminal, and that by taking orders I am guilty of any crime or fault, I am not guilty; for a priest I am, and that I will never deny.—Therefore, said he, thou art a traitor.—Had the kingdom, said I, no other kind of traitors, it would be in a far better condition than it is at present. At these words the court was silent for awhile; but at last they cried out, I was a seducer.—Now, said I, you give me occasion to rejoice, because you treat me with the same title as the Jews did my Saviour. They asked again, if I were guilty or not guilty? I answered, I am not guilty of any treason, or of any other capital crime, but I confess I am a priest, and that I was taken at mass; nor will I ever deny my priesthood, though I were to die a thousand deaths for it. To say I am guilty in being a priest, as if there were any guilt in the matter, that I will never do. Here they made a great outcry, alleging I had said, I was not guilty of any sin. I told them they did not take me right, for I acknowledged myself the greatest sinner upon earth; but what I meant was, that my being a priest, or saying mass, was no guilt or sin. Then the recorder said, Mr. Bullaker, you have here confessed over and over again that you are a priest; plead therefore to your indictment directly, guilty or not guilty. I answered as before—I am not guilty of any treason, but a priest I am. He urged, Your being a priest makes you guilty of treason. I answered, that those laws were not to be regarded which were repugnant to the law of God; that the heathens of old, and Mahometans at present, had laws, by which it was death to preach to them the law of Christ; but that the transgression of such laws could be no treason. I added, that the parliament which had made the law, by which priests were declared traitors, was certainly not, by its own confession, infallible in making laws; a privilege which they would not allow even to the universal Church of God,

which St. Paul calls the pillar and ground of truth.' So far we have abridged the confessor's own account of himself. The recorder directed the jury to bring him in guilty; and though they were for having the case referred to the parliament, he proceeded to pronounce sentence in the usual form. Father Bullaker could not contain his joy upon the occasion, but falling on his knees, with his hands and eyes lifted towards heaven, sang the *Te Deum*; then rising, he made a profound reverence to the court, thanking them for the favour they had done him, and, with a perfect serenity of countenance, was conducted back to Newgate. On Oct. 12th he was brought out of prison, and laid upon his back, with his feet foremost, on the sledge, and so drawn to Tyburn; showing all the way an undisturbed complacency. At the place of execution he spoke to the people upon the text, 'Thou art a priest for ever after the order of Melchisedech;' but was soon ordered by the officers to make an end. Hereadily obeyed, giving them thanks for bringing him thither to die in defence of his faith; and after a short time spent in prayer, the cart was drawn away, and before he was quite dead, the rope being cut, he was dismembered, bowelled, and quartered.

ASSASSINATION OF BUCKINGHAM.—The duke had gone to Portsmouth, 1628, to conduct the large fleet and army assembled to relieve Rochelle, the Huguenot station in France, which was now closely blockaded by the French. It was at this juncture that one Felton, of good family, who had formerly been refused a vacant post in the army by the duke, finding that the parliament had issued a remonstrance against Buckingham's waste of the public money, resolved to revenge himself for his private injury, and do the commons a service. Obtaining access to a military company, wherein the duke was conversing, Felton approached his victim unnoticed, and stabbed him to the heart.

The duke only called out, 'The villain has killed me!' and fell dead on the spot. No one had seen the blow, nor the person who gave it; but a hat being picked up, on the inside of which was a paper sewn, containing part of the remonstrance of the commons, it was concluded that it belonged to the assassin. At the same time a man without a hat was seen walking composedly before the door of the house; and on being charged with the crime, he did not deny it, but gloried in the deed, as he did also when led to execution.

RISE OF THE INDEPENDENTS.—This sect, which pretended to be warranted by a commission from above to reform matters with the strong hand, eventually got the better of the presbyterians in the parliament, 1646; and Cromwell, its coryphæus, soon dispossessed, sword in hand, all the latter of their seats. Each sect displayed a fanatical zeal highly repugnant to the spirit of Christianity; and we are no less shocked at the audacity of the one, than we are disgusted at the mean and degrading expedients adopted by the other, to carry into effect their respective designs. The independents differed from the other puritans only in the point of church-government; they holding every separate congregation of persons employed in the worship of God, whether in a house or a church, to be a perfect and independent church, capable of making rules for its own guidance. Thus the non-conformists, or puritans, were now clearly divided into independents and presbyterians.

THE SHIP-MONEY LEVY.—In order to equip a fleet (at least this was the pretence made) each of the English maritime towns was required, with the aid of the adjacent counties, to arm as many vessels as were appointed them, 1634. London was rated at twenty ships. This was a tax which in former reigns had been levied in like manner without the consent of parliament; but then the exigency of the state was believed to

demand such a course more than at present. The fact is, that as the commons had refused the needful supplies to the king, he was compelled to resort to arbitrary measures to obtain money: in the same way he offered to compound with the catholics, and to dispense with the penal laws against them, on their purchasing such immunity.

INDEPENDENCE OF THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES.—In 1648, the war which began under Maurice the stadtholder with the Spaniards, was brought to a conclusion, in consequence of the capture by the Dutch of the Spanish flotilla from Mexico, valued at fifteen millions sterling. The treaty of Westphalia following, Philip IV. renounced therein all sovereignty over 'the Lords the States-General of the United Provinces,' who were henceforward declared a free and independent republic. From this period until the election of William III. as stadtholder, 1672, nothing remarkable occurred in Dutch history, if we except the war with the Commonwealth of England.

INDEPENDENCE OF SWITZERLAND.—The treaty of Westphalia included the acknowledgment by all the European powers of the freedom of this mountain-country from all foreign yoke.

MANCHU CONQUEST OF CHINA.—The Manchu Tartars, who had formerly been driven out of China, had gained great strength during the Ming dynasty, and greatly disturbed the country by their invasions. At length in 1648 they subdued and deposed the Ming sovereign, Tsang-ching, and placed their own leader, Shun-chi, on the Chinese throne; who thus commenced the 22nd imperial dynasty of Ta-tsing, still the reigning one, with Peking for its capital. Shun-chi died 1661.

TREATY OF WESTPHALIA, 1648, which closed the Thirty Years' War of the German protestants. (See *Ferdinand II. of Germany.*)

RISE OF THE JANSENISTS.—Cornelius Jansen, bishop of Ypres, had been advanced to his see, 1634, by the king of Spain, for his censure of the protection afforded to the protestants by France, a reproach which greatly irritated Richelieu against him and his followers. But Jansen is best known as the head of his sect. His tenets are contained in a book which was not published till after his death, called 'Augustinus.' This work produced the great modern schism in the church of Rome, displaying as it does the doctrine of St. Augustine on the constitution of the human nature, in its original, fallen, and renewed state; on sanctifying grace, through the Saviour; and on the predestination of men and angels. The Jesuits became the violent opponents of all who adopted the notions of Jansen and Augustine, repugnant as they were to their own opinions concerning human liberty and divine grace; pope Urban VIII. issued a bull against the new doctrines; Innocent XI. especially condemned what he termed the five heretical propositions contained in 'Augustinus;' and a contest was maintained for more than a century upon the matter. In the reformed church, Arminius and Calvin advocated respectively the opinions of the Jesuits and Jansenists; and in Holland the two parties were styled remonstrants and anti-remonstrants. Bishop Jansen died of the plague, aged 53, 1638.

MOUNT VESUVIUS, by a sudden eruption, overwhelmed 4000 persons, with their houses and lands, 1632.

NEWSPAPERS, 1642, first published in England: *Gazettes* in 1665. The name gazette is, in England, confined to that species of newspaper issued by government authority, and containing royal proclamations, &c.: there is only one, called 'The London Gazette,' which comes forth every Tuesday and Friday. The word is derived from *gazetta*, a Venetian coin, which was the usual price of the first newspapers. The duty levied by the

cattle, swine, poultry, horses, and mules, raised for sale to the neighbouring islands.

ST. LUCIA AN ENGLISH COLONY.—This beautiful isle, 32 miles long, and 12 broad, was discovered and settled on by the English, on St. Lucia's day, 1635; since which period it has undergone various changes, being sometimes declared neutral, and sometimes in the hands of the French. It was recaptured, for the seventh time, by the British from France 1803; and notwithstanding its French population, language, manners, and predilections, has ever since belonged to England. The first approach to the isle is remarkable. Two rocks rise perpendicularly out of the sea, and shoot to a great height in parallel cones. They are covered with evergreen foliage, and stand on either side of the entrance into a small, but deep and beautiful bay. Behind this, the mountains, which run north and south throughout the island, rise in the most fantastic shapes. When sailing along the shore, the variety of scenery is exquisitely beautiful: the back ground continues mountainous, but at every three or four miles appear the most lovely little coves and bays, fringed with luxuriant cane-fields, and enlivened by the neatly laid out mansions of the planters; while the flotillas of fishing and passage (or drogher) boats, with their long light masts, and latteen sails, add life and animation to the scene. The plains throughout the island are well watered, and the mountains are clothed with fine timber. Castries is its only town. The rule is in a governor and council, with French laws when they are not in opposition to the spirit of the British code; and sugar, coffee, and rum are the chief exports.

BRAZIL taken by the Dutch from the Portuguese, 1641—3.

THE BAROMETER nearly completed by Evangelist Torricelli, 1646. The term, from the Greek, *weight-measurer*, is applied to the instrument (one of the most curious inventions in the history of philosophy) because it

weighs a column of air against one of mercury. It having been noticed that the water in pumps would not rise higher than 32 feet when the air was exhausted, Torricelli (a mathematician of Faenza, who, after living with Galilei in his old age, settled at Florence, was patronized by duke Ferdinand II., and died there, aged 40, 1647), imagining that this was occasioned by the weight of the atmosphere being a counterpoise to the 32 feet of water, tried if it was so, by substituting mercury for water. The effect would be, that the height of the column necessary to counterpoise the weight of air, would be reduced in the proportion in which mercury is heavier (14 times) than water; so that two feet four inches (or the 14th of 32 feet) of mercury would supply the place, and produce the effect of 32 feet of water. He accordingly filled a tube, more than three feet long, and open at one end only, with mercury; and then, stopping the open end with the finger, he placed the tube in an open vessel of mercury, with the open end downwards. On removing the finger, the mercury in the tube sank until it stood in the tube at about 28 inches higher than the mercury in the vessel. He thus constructed what is at this time considered the best form of the barometer or weather-glass.

THE PENDULUM invented 1657. Christian Huyghens (1629—1695), born at the Hague, after studying law at Leyden, displayed an unusual taste for physical science; and having at length entirely devoted himself to mechanical and astronomical pursuits, produced the model of a pendulum for clocks 1657. In the next year appeared his '*System of Saturn*,' in which he discovered a satellite attending that planet, and ascertained the existence of its ring; in 1661 he visited England, where he improved the air-pump, and invented a new method of polishing glasses; and in 1666, at Colbert's invitation, he took up his abode in Paris with a handsome

pension. On finding his health decline, he returned to his native Hague 1681, and died there, aged 66, 1695. The application of the sensible equality of the oscillations of a weight suspended by a string or wire, as a regulator to a clock, is that on which the fame of Huyghens securely rests; and the successive improvements in the escapement, which sustains the motion of the pendulum, and records its vibrations, and those in the pendulum itself, which secure a perfect equality in the duration of each oscillation, have finally produced the as-

tronomical clock, the most accurate machine which man has hitherto constructed.

THE FRENCH ACADEMY founded by Richelieu, 1630.

HACKNEY COACHES first used in London 1625, and their number restricted to 20. In 1815 their number was above 7000; but from the introduction of cabs and omnibusses, their amount is rapidly declining, and it is a question whether the day is far distant when the term 'hackney coach' will become subject matter for etymological inquiry.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER IBRAHIM.—Ibrahim was taken from prison, 1640, by the dictatorial janizaries, to succeed his brother Morad IV. He at first imagined he was going to be put to death; but his courage revived on seeing (barbarous reflection!) his brother's dead body. In 1644 he resolved to be revenged on the knights of Malta, because Bois Baudrin, one of those knights, had taken a Turkish vessel, in which were a sultana, and the son of Ibrahim; but he afterwards changed his mind, turned his arms against the Venetians, and took Canea. He was preparing for the conquest of Candia, when his cruelties and debaucheries induced the janizaries to strangle him, 1649.

THE POPEDOM.—INNOCENT X., Giovanni Battista Panfilì, was elected on the death of Urban VIII., 1644, being then 73. He was of a good family; and though guided too much by his sister, Donna Olimpia, an ambitious and covetous woman, he displayed a desire to benefit Rome and the Church together. He protected the poor against the oppressions of the aristocracy, diminished the taxes, and erected several stately structures in the Capitol. When the people of Fermo; on the Adriatic, incited by the nobles, had revolted against their governor, because he had kept the price of corn too low, Innocent sent troops to the spot; and his commissioner punished the guilty, both noble

and simple, with rigid impartiality. The district of Castro near Rome was still in possession of the Farnese dukes of Parma, notwithstanding the efforts of Urban VIII. to wrest it from them. Innocent, however, when the duke had refused to receive a new bishop of his appointment, and had even caused the prelate to be murdered when on the road to his diocese, invested the town of Castro with expedition, got possession of it, and razed it to the foundations, erecting on the site a pillar with the inscription, 'Qui fù Castro!' The episcopal see was then removed to Acquapendente, and the duchy united to the papal state. Innocent died, aged 84, 1655.

RUSSIA UNDER ALEXIS MICHAELOWITZ.—This czar succeeded his father, Mikhail I. Romanov, 1645. His reign, in opposition to that of his parent, was a continued scene of tumult; the state being harassed by both external and internal foes. The sources of the commotions were found in the multiplicity and inconsistency of the laws, and in the jarring claims of the nobles on the borders. An *Emanoi Ukase*, or personal order, which is an edict of the czar, signed with his own hand, is the only law of Russia: hence the sovereign's title of autocrat, *self-ruling*. These edicts are as various as the opinions, prejudices, passions, or whims of men; and in the days of Alexis they produced endless contentions. To re-

medy the evil, he made a selection from such edicts of his predecessors as had been acted on for a century; presuming that those either were founded in natural justice, or, during so long a currency, had formed the minds of the people to consider them just. This digest, which he declared to be the common law of Russia, and which is prefaced by a sort of institute, is the Russian standard of law at this day, and is known by the title of the *Ulogeni*, or Selection. This was a great work of Alexis; and the following gives him a yet greater claim to the title of a politic and talented ruler. The czar could then, by common consent, take a cause out of the many petty courts of judicature throughout the empire, and have it investigated before himself. The old nobles, however, had in many cases, the remains of principalities in their families; they would therefore have their own private law-courts (like the *Fueros* of Spain), and occasionally acted in them with great injustice. Each of these feudal personages could produce his authority for an exclusive jurisdiction on his estate, in the shape of a royal ukase; so that Alexis, by an *Emanoi Ukase*, commanded all possessing such valuable archives, to send them to Moscow for inspection, 1670. A day was fixed for the examination of them; a splendid wooden court-house was erected for their reception; and a competent guard of soldiery was placed in the building. On the morning of the day appointed for the grand inspection, the court-house was in flames; and in two hours nothing beyond its ashes was to be seen. Alexis, meeting the crowd of feudal princes, nobles, and gentlemen, in his palace, boldly advanced to them, and said, 'Gentlemen, henceforth your privileges, courts, and your rank belong to the nation. Your archives are unfortunately lost;—but those of the nation remain. Your grades are no longer private but national, and attached to the services you are actually performing. Henceforward colonel Buturlin

(a private gentleman) ranks before captain Visiemi (a feudal prince).' This constitution, which established the different ranks of Russia, remains also in force to this day. Alexis died 1676.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL UNDER PHILIP IV.—This prince succeeded his father, Philip III., as king of the whole peninsula, 1621, in the year that the truce of twelve years, made by his predecessor with the Dutch, expired. The war, therefore, was resumed, and carried on with success by the Spaniards, so long as they had general Spinola at their head; but in 1624, their fleet was defeated near Lima by the Dutch, who had three years before formed a West India company. In 1623 occurred the visit of Charles, prince of Wales, to Madrid, accompanied by Buckingham, for the purpose of demanding Philip's sister in marriage. In 1633, Philip re-entered into the possession of the Netherlands, on account of the death of his aunt Elizabeth; and in 1635 (Olivarez being his chief minister) a sanguinary war commenced between him and France, occasioned by his seizure of Trèves, and imprisonment of the elector, who had put himself under the French protection. This contest did not terminate till the peace of the Pyrenees, 1659. Meanwhile, in 1640, the Portuguese had risen against their Spanish masters, and recovered their independence. The three Philips had constantly violated the original contract by which the two kingdoms were to remain united; and a few instances may be here noticed in proof of the assertion. It had been solemnly admitted that Portugal should remain independent in laws, &c., with Lisbon as the capital, so that the people might not be obliged to travel in search of justice. On the other hand, neither promotion nor justice could ever be obtained but by a journey to Madrid. The general assembly of estates, or Cortes, was to be held frequently: it was convened only thrice in 60 years. The king was to reside as much as

possible in Lisbon : the first Philip was there but once, the second four months, and the third (Philip IV.) never. By reason of these and other grievances, the detestation of the Spanish government became universal ; and in 1640 a revolution took place, in which John, duke of Braganza, was declared king, by the title of John IV. Philip sustained also another loss, by the revolt of the Catalonians to Louis XIII., 1641, and Naples soon after spurned his authority ; and it was not until many years had expired, that he was enabled to bring them again under his sway. Philip died, aged 61, 1665.

PORTUGAL UNDER JOHN IV.—It has been stated that João, duke of Braganza, (who was in fact rightful heir after Henry I.), was placed on the throne by the revolted Portuguese, 1640 ; whereby the peninsula was again restored to its ancient duality. Philip IV. of Spain made many efforts to regain his authority, and the first battle with that view was fought at Badajoz, 1644, when the Spanish forces were beaten with severe loss ; and in all the succeeding conflicts João was able to maintain his ground. During the Spanish rule in Portugal, the colony of Brazil had become a prey to anarchy ; and on the restoration of the old family, in the person of João, the Dutch, between 1641 and 1643, wholly subdued it. John was a mild and affable prince, exceedingly plain in his dress, and wholly inattentive to the pleasures of the table—his dinner being, according to a Portuguese proverb, ‘any where, at any time, and of any thing.’ His daughter became the consort of our Charles II. ; and he died, aged 52, 1656.

POLAND UNDER VLADISLAUS VI.—He was the son of Sigismund III., whom he succeeded 1632 ; and under his wise administration the affairs of Poland somewhat revived. He defeated the Turks, obliged the Muscovites to sue for peace, and compelled the Swedes to restore some of their conquests ; but having attempted to

abridge the liberty of the Cossacks, they revolted, and gave his army several defeats. In the midst of a war with the latter he died, aged 52, 1648.

NAPLES UNDER MASANIELLO.—It has been shown that Naples and Sicily became a portion of the Spanish dominions 1503 ; from which period, viceroys from Madrid kept their courts regularly at Naples and Palermo. The Neapolitans had conducted themselves loyally towards their foreign rulers, and had supported many heavy taxes without murmuring, until 1647, when an impost was laid upon all sorts of fruits, dry and green, which supply their chief food to the bulk of the population. While the lower orders were in a state of excitement on the occasion, one *Tomaso Anello*, a name familiarly abbreviated to *Masaniello*, who carried on a trade in fish, suddenly exclaimed to a group of persons who were conversing on the matter, ‘I will be hanged but I will right this city!’ and soon after, at the head of 2000 boys, attacked and rifled the palace of the viceroy. He was thereupon saluted sovereign by 150,000 of the populace ; and though of such a grade, displayed great firmness and good sense. A stage was erected in the market-place, where, clothed in white, he daily gave audience, received petitions, and decided all causes, civil and criminal. By a formal decree, the houses and goods of sixty farmers of the taxes were burned ; and death was threatened to all who should purloin or save from the flames the smallest article. At length, convinced of the formidable nature of the confederacy, the viceroy agreed to treat with *Anello* ; who accordingly went in state to his residence, habited in cloth of silver, and mounted upon a lofty charger, with 50,000 persons in his train. The object of the insurrection being now accomplished, *Anello* intimated his intention to retire to his former state of privacy ; but his wife and kindred forbade it, and there is reason to believe that his

mind, unaccustomed to the change, became actually affected soon after. He suddenly began to oppress with the most wayward tyranny the people he had so recently relieved; and a conspiracy being formed against him, four assassins set upon him, and after murdering him, threw his head into one ditch, and his body into another, 1648.

PERSIA UNDER SHAH SÄFFI, &c.—Säffi, grandson and successor of Abbas the Great, began his reign, 1628, by ordering the eyes of his only brother to be cut out, and by casting from a rock his two uncles. Before the time of Abbas, the children of the Persian kings appeared abroad, and had governments allowed them on their coming of age; but Abbas passed a decree, that the royal children should henceforth be confined till the parent's death in the harem, where they could have no conversation with any but the eunuchs. In this way Säffi had been brought up, having been taught nothing but to read and write, and being allowed no other diversions than shooting with a bow, and riding in the gardens on an ass. So wholly therefore was he averse from state affairs, that the Persians scarcely perceived they had a king, save when some barbarous decree was issued, such as that for burying alive 44 women of his own harem. The provinces of Kandahar, and Babylon were soon lost by his supineness; and foes were rising on every side to diminish his territories still farther, when death seized him, aged 28, 1641. He had, six years before that event, ordered an eunuch to blind his own son, Abbas, by passing a hot iron over his eyes: the eunuch, however, had compassion on the prince, and used a cold iron, but enjoined him to feign blindness ever in his father's presence. Säffi had not discovered the cheat put upon him; but when on his death-bed he lamented his cruelty to the prince, the eunuch acknowledged his disobedience, was raised to a high dignity in consequence, and the tyrant

expired in peace. **ABBAS II.,** the prince alluded to, succeeded, under the guardianship of his mother; and when only 18 years old, laid siege to Kandahar, which, in the former reign, had been taken by the great mongul. He retook it, and all the country round, notwithstanding the efforts of the Indian emperor; who invested it more than once with an army of 80,000 men. Abbas was equally regarded by his subjects, and dreaded by his neighbours. He was strictly just, of an exalted turn of mind, a lover of foreigners, and openly protected the Christians, declaring that 'God alone was lord of the consciences of men.' He formed the design of extending the limits of his empire to the north; and for this purpose amassed great sums, not by taxing his subjects, but by retrenching superfluous expenses, and leaving vacant many useless posts, to which great revenues were annexed. Death, however, put an end to his projects, in his 35th year, 1666.

DELHI UNDER SHAH JEHAN.—This fifth great mongul succeeded his father Jehangir 1623, and during the first years of his reign, reduced Golconda to his authority. He introduced many important reforms during a long interval of peace, and was meditating the extension of his empire by farther conquests, when he was conspired against by one of his own children. Jehan had four sons, and had appointed the eldest, Shekoh, his successor; but his third and most ambitious one, Aurangzeb, having raised a party, seized his brothers Shekoh and Shoojah, and put them to death. He then killed his remaining brother Murad in battle; and having dethroned and imprisoned his father, was acknowledged emperor of Delhi, 1658.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER CHARLES I.—The first grant of any value to the East India Company was made by the great mongul Jehangir 1612, who permitted the English to establish factories at Surat, Ahmedabad, and Cambay; and in the next ten

years they had some factories on the Coromandel coast. But a more important boon was the permission given by the rajah of the place to construct a fortified factory at Madraspatam, 1640, which the Company named Fort St. George, now the centre of a third of British India; and shortly after, they were allowed by Shah Jehan to set up a factory at Hoogly.

VENICE UNDER FRANCESCO ERIZZO, &c.—This doge succeeded 1631; and from the last mention of the oligarchy, a century back, there is nothing to be recorded, save the contest with the Turks, in which the success alternated. In 1645, however, the Moslims effected a sudden descent on Candia, after pretending to the doge that their preparations were against Malta. The Venetians, however, defended Canea, where the Turks landed, with obstinacy, but were compelled at last to offer terms; and the doge and senate then consulted on the best course to pursue. Among the extraordinary expedients adopted to raise money, it was proposed to sell the rank of nobility. Four citizens offered 100,000 ducats each for this honour; and notwithstanding some opposition, the measure was at last carried, and 80 new families were thus admitted into the grand council. To support Candia, the capital of the island, was now resolved; and the best proof of the brave manner in which its defence was attempted against the whole force of the Turks, is to be found in the fact that its investment continued 23 years. The efforts made by the oligarchy astonished all Europe; and volunteers from every country came to Candia, to exercise their valour, to acquire knowledge in the military art, and to assist a brave people, whom every tongue extolled. The siege of Candia is indeed one of the most memorable in history. Mohammed IV., impatient at its length, came at last to Negropont, 1667, that he might have more frequent opportunities of hearing from the

vizir who superintended it; and the vizir sending him word that he would take all possible care of the lives of the soldiers, the humane sultan replied, 'that the business of the vizir was to take the place.' In spite, however, of the minister's care of his men, the investment cost the lives of 200,000 of them. Candia capitulated in 1668; and Morsini, the Venetian general, was allowed to march out of the rubbish of the city with the honours of war. The expense of so tedious a war greatly exhausted the resources of Venice; Erizzo had died 1646, and been succeeded by five other doges; during the sway of the last of whom, Contareno, Candia fell. Contareno died 1675. It was during the investment of Candia that an attempt was made by the Spanish resident at Venice, the marquis Bedamar, and a disaffected Venetian party, to assassinate the doge and whole senate; a conspiracy indelibly recorded by Otway in his 'Venice Preserved.'

SCOTLAND UNDER CHARLES I.—Charles had no sooner ascended the English throne, than the presbyterian clergy petitioned him against the Five Articles of Perth; and when, in reply, he ordered Spottiswood, archbishop of St. Andrew's, to support the episcopal order, signs of insurrection appeared which occasioned a royal proclamation, menacing with condign punishment all who henceforth should attempt to oppose the Church. Order being thus restored, Charles sent over the marquis of Hamilton with 6000 Scots to the aid of Gustavus Adolphus, then contending for the protestant faith; and in 1633 he came himself to Edinburgh, to be crowned. The Scottish parliament, after that ceremony, passed another law for the upholding of the episcopal church; while Charles, to soothe the presbyterians, dealt out honours with an impartial hand, and in a tour to Linlithgow, Stirling, and other towns, was received with every loyal demonstration by the people. When, however, soon after his return

to London, a command was received by Spottiswood for the use of the English liturgy throughout Scotland, a plan of opposition to the measure was secretly concerted by Alexander Henderson, minister of Leuchars, and David Dickson, minister of Irvine; who, with several others, came to Edinburgh. Accordingly, on the 23rd of July, 1637, (the day appropriated for commencing the use of the new liturgy in St. Giles's church), when the dean of Edinburgh, having on his surplice, had opened his book to begin the service, the bishop, and many of the privy council being present, a multitude, clapping their hands, and crying out 'A pope! a pope! antichrist! stone him!' raised such a tumult, that it was impossible to proceed with the duty. The bishop mounted the pulpit to appease them; but three old women thereupon, Euphemia Henderson, Bertha Craig, and Elspa Craig, hurled the stools on which they had been sitting, at his head. It was with the greatest difficulty that the magistrates expelled the fanatical assemblage, and shut the doors. The multitude, however, did not disperse; the tumult still continued without; stones were thrown at the doors and windows; and when the service, which had nevertheless proceeded, was ended, the bishop was attacked on his way home, and narrowly escaped death. In the afternoon, the privy-seal, while conveying the bishop in his coach, was furiously assailed by the mob; and if his servants with drawn swords had not kept off the assailants, the bishop's life would assuredly have been sacrificed. Some days after, the bishop of Galloway was attacked in the streets, and chased into the chamber where the privy council was sitting. The council itself was violently attacked; the town-council met with the same fate; and nothing could have saved the lives of the members of both, but their application to some popular lords, who protected them from presbyterian rage. As in all other places in Scotland the liturgy

met with a similar reception, most of the clergy refused, or delayed, to read it. The presbyterian lords of the privy council now took up the cause of the recusant ministers; and while petitioning Charles to withdraw his mandate, they employed themselves in a clandestine levy of troops. On receiving private intelligence of this, the king sent off the marquis of Hamilton from London with an offer of accommodation: the 'service book' (as the liturgy was called) and the canons were to be removed; disobedience to the five articles was to be connived at; and an indemnity was to be granted for all that had passed. But these concessions only served to render the presbyterians more insolent. Glorifying in the title of 'Covenanters,' they imperiously demanded the abolition of every law regarding church-government that had been enacted since the accession of James VI. to the English throne; and while Hamilton, desirous of peace, was again in London planning measures with Charles, they raised money and arms, lest the English should decide on coercing them. At length Hamilton returned; and summoning a meeting of the disaffected at Glasgow, Nov. 1638, composed of 260 commissioners from different presbyteries, universities, and burghs, (Henderson acting therein as moderator,) laid before it the subscription of 28,000 respectable persons who voted for episcopacy; but after sanctioning its proceedings by his presence for several days, he saw that none of those ends he had in view were likely to be obtained, and dissolved the assembly. The members, however, refusing to depart, continued their sittings, surrounded by an armed party of their adherents, and headed by the earl of Argyre. They boldly rescinded the acts of all the assemblies of the last 40 years, deposed the bishops, and declared episcopacy, the high commission, the articles of Perth, the canons, and the liturgy, abolished. Thus the whole fabric which James and Charles, in a long course of years,

had been rearing with so much care and policy, fell at once to the ground. There now remained no alternative; both parties prepared to decide the contest by force of arms; and Lesly, a general of some experience, was recalled from Sweden to head the Covenanters. These fortified Leith, assisted by many noblemen and even women of rank; the latter carrying on their shoulders the rubbish requisite for completing the works. In the first conflict, the marquis of Huntley was taken prisoner by the earl of Montrose; and Edinburgh Castle soon after falling to Lesly, Charles, in alarm, arrived in York at the head of 20,000 men, May 1639, while Hamilton entered the Forth with 20 ships of war. A treaty with the heads of the Covenanters was the result; and Charles, after a conference with them at Berwick, (on which occasion Montrose deserted to him,) acknowledged 'the Solemn League and Covenant,' declared episcopacy abolished for ever in Scotland, and then marched back to London. He soon, however, returned to York (Aug. 1640), on finding the Covenanters prepared to invade England, because he had made their commissioner, the earl of Loudon, (who had been sent to protest against his order for the prorogation of their parliament,) prisoner in the Tower. But the king was defeated at Newburn, and reduced to the necessity of submitting to any terms his foes might propose; and advancing to Edinburgh 1641, Charles, after ratifying the Covenant, bestowed pensions on Henderson and other popular preachers, and created Argyle a marquis, Loudon an earl, and Lesly earl of Leven—marks of timidity, which led to the eventual wicked betrayal of himself to his English enemies by the Scottish nation. On the rebellion of Roger More breaking out in Ireland (at the same juncture), the Covenanters offered Charles 10,000 men to aid in its suppression; but before he had decided on accepting such assistance, his own disputes

with the English parliament began. The latter thereupon, with the promise of destroying episcopacy in England, and introducing the presbyterian forms, prevailed on the Scots to fight *against* instead of *for* the king; and 18,000 infantry, and 3000 cavalry, under the earl of Leven, accordingly espoused the parliamentary side, 1643. Montrose, however, now the general of Charles, heading a force composed chiefly of the Highland clans, gained in the next two years no less than six victories over various parties of the Covenanters, and took Glasgow and Edinburgh; and the presbyterian cause was fast sinking, when Leven returned from England with his cavalry, took Montrose by surprise, and completely routed his army at Philipshaugh, October, 1645. So unexpected a reverse extinguished the hopes of the 'prelatists,' as the royalists were contemptuously styled by their opponents; and there was nothing now to prevent that arrangement, which finally at Westminster, by a general assembly of Scottish divines, 1647, declared that form of Calvinism known as 'presbyterianism,' the established religion of Scotland; the chief commissioner being the same Henderson who had begun the contest 1637, and whose mother was one of the three women that hurled a stool at the bishop of Edinburgh's head. Thus secure, the Covenanters were induced to that last act which, though not a premeditated one, has been ever since regarded, even by their own nation, as a stain upon Scottish honour. The cause of Charles in England declining daily, and the parliamentary forces obliging him to grant all they had originally asked, the daring leaders of the rebellion at length demanded most preposterously 'that the king should deliver himself up to their discretion.' On learning this, the unfortunate monarch fled for protection to the Scottish army, then besieging Newark. The latter received him, but adopted no measures for his defence; and having soon after received 400,000*l.*, the sum

of their arrears due by the parliament, and being overawed by the English forces that surrounded them, they delivered him up to his foes, and marched home. Though the faithful duke of Hamilton, after much opposition, raised 20,000 men, 1648, and, with a hope of wiping the blot from his country's annals, marched into England to release the king, his noble effort was too late. He was attacked by Cromwell with an overwhelming force, and after a severe conflict defeated, taken prisoner, and executed; while his heroic act was made the infamous pretext, by the same insurgent and his partisans, for putting to death soon after the king himself, as the author of all the miseries and bloodshed of their own rebellion.

GERMANY UNDER FERDINAND II. AND III.—When the emperor Matthias had been succeeded in the regular order by his cousin Ferdinand II., 1619, the states of Bohemia refused to acknowledge him, on account of his being a catholic, and opposed to the evangetic league. They even besieged him in Vienna; and when driven off by his partisans, declared Frederick, count-palatine, son-in-law of James I. of England, and the most influential protestant prince of Germany, their king. Bethlem Gabor and the Hungarians joined in the revolt; and this was the beginning of the religious and political contest known as 'The Thirty Years War,' (1619–1648), one of the most desolating in the history of Europe. Ferdinand was ably supported by his general, count de Tilly, who overran Bohemia, expelled the count-palatine, and caused Hungary to submit. Christiern IV. of Denmark succeeded the elector-palatine as head of the evangetic league, 1625; but Tilly and Wallenstein defeated him, and the peace of Lubec put an end for a season to hostilities, 1629. Ferdinand, thus successful, now threatened the Bohemians with such measures of retaliation, that 30,000 protestant families are said to have left that country for other states. After

a while, however, a reaction took place; and Gustavus of Sweden declaring himself chief of the evangetic league, 1630, the protestant cause flourished till the fall of that hero at Lutzen, 1632. The Swedish generals and their German adherents carried on the contest after that event; but the victory of Nordlingen, 1634, gained by Ferdinand, the emperor's son, had the effect of detaching the elector of Saxony from the Swedes. The great stain on Ferdinand II.'s memory will ever be his alleged authorized murder of Wallenstein, his general, 1633. He died, aged 61, 1637, and was succeeded by his son, FERDINAND III. The Swedes had now been joined by the French; and though Ferdinand gained several advantages over them at first, he suffered a severe defeat by Bernard, duke of Weimar, and the French, 1638; and by the Swedes under Banier, 1639, who even laid siege to Ratisbon, while he was holding the diet there. The French were also victorious under the duc d'Enghien and Turenne in subsequent years; but upon Ferdinand's defeat of the allied forces at Mariendal, in Franconia, 1648, a peace, called that of Westphalia, was agreed to at Munster between Germany, France, and Sweden, which closed the memorable 'Thirty Years War.' The treaty of Westphalia forms an epoch in modern history; becoming as it did the basis of that political system of Europe, which obtained till the French revolution of 1789. Ferdinand died at Vienna, aged 49, 1657, leaving behind him the character of a wise, temperate, and courageous prince.

SWEDEN UNDER CHARLES IX., &c.—It has been shown that Charles IX. was placed on the throne by the Swedes, upon the expulsion of his nephew Sigismund, 1604; who had given offence to the States by abjuring the Lutheran faith when he accepted the crown of Poland. Being accustomed to the people, and skilful in battling with their prejudices, he passed a tolerably peaceful reign, and

died 1611; when he was succeeded by his son, GUSTAVUS II. (ADOLPHUS), who became one of the most famous sovereigns in European history. Though Charles had, by his wise and vigorous conduct, in a great measure retrieved the affairs of Sweden, they were still in a precarious state. The finances had been drained by wars and revolutions; powerful armies were preparing in Denmark, Poland, and Russia; and the Swedish troops were not only inferior in number to their enemies, but the government was destitute of resources for their payment. So long as Charles was alive, Sigismund ventured not to renew his claim to the throne of Sweden; but when he saw a youth of 17 succeed, he invaded the country, and claimed the crown for his son Ladislaus, then a minor. This war, however, only served to develop the brilliant qualities of Gustavus: he fought successfully against the czar of Russia, the ally of Sigismund, and against Sigismund himself; until, by the mediation of England and Holland, a peace was concluded 1629, which gave to Sweden a great part of Livonia, and the important town of Riga. On hearing of these successes of the youthful king, the protestants of Germany, who groaned under the tyranny of Ferdinand II. and his field-marshal Tilly, applied to Gustavus to head them; and landing his forces in Pomerania, 1630, he was soon in possession of that country. Ferdinand, in vain solicited a peace: Gustavus replied, that he had not entered Germany for his own aggrandisement, but simply to protect his fellow-protestants. Tilly was therefore sent against the invader, 1631; and for some months Gustavus and that field-marshal struggled for victory. At length the army of Gustavus pressed forward into the heart of North Germany, and the protestants every where joined his standard. His generals also, who had been acting separately, were victorious. Colberg, Werben, Königsberg, fell into the hands of the Swedes; General Papenheim, whom

Tilly had dispatched with four regiments to protect Prussia, suffered a decisive defeat near Magdeburg; and Gustavus, collecting all his forces, marched into the territories of the elector of Saxony, who instantly placed his whole military power in his hands. Tilly, with 50,000 men, now advanced against Gustavus; and on Sept. 7th, 1631, encountered his army of 40,000 Swedes and Saxons on the plains of Leipzig. The victory was long doubtful between armies led by two of the greatest military commanders of the day; but at length Tilly's defeat was complete. More than a third of his army remained prisoners upon the field; and the remainder owed their safety to his firmness and military talents, which were displayed in a most difficult and admirably conducted retreat. All Germany was now open to the Swedes; and Gustavus hastened forwards in an uninterrupted career of conquest. But it is curious to observe, that even the protestant portion of the Germans, when they saw the possibility of a settlement, at least, if not a general conquest, being effected in their country by foreigners, began to consult how best they might prevent such an issue; and it is clear that the Swedes were on a sudden viewed with positive dislike by both protestants and papists. Ferdinand, excessively alarmed, recalled Wallenstein, a general whom he had before, through the intrigues of the papal party, dismissed, and sent him against Gustavus, who had just gained a second victory over and killed Tilly on the Lech. Wallenstein took up a strong position in the neighbourhood of Nürnberg, by which he cut off all succours from the king of Sweden, and frustrated his plan of penetrating along the Danube, through Bavaria into Austria; and in fruitless attacks upon that general's camp, together with famine and disease, Gustavus, in the space of 72 days, lost 30,000 men. At length Wallenstein moved towards Saxony, and on the 1st of November, 1632, offered

battle to his opponent at Lutzen. Gustavus, according to the then custom of the Wicliffites and Lollards, as dissenters from the hierarchy, commenced the conflict to the sound of sacred music, himself singing aloud the words of an hymn, and his army all joining in chorus. He led the attack in person on foot, and killed the foremost of the enemy with a lance. While heading a second encounter, on horseback, against the cavalry, a ball struck him from behind, and he fell dead. The horse, by galloping along the Swedish ranks without its rider, announced the death of the king; but duke Bernhard of Weimar crying out to the soldiers—'The king is only made prisoner!' the notion of rescuing him inspired the troops with a headstrong bravery, that nothing apparently could resist. After a frightful carnage, the imperialists were forced to retreat; and the moment the king's body, to the dismay of the Swedes, was found bleeding, though lifeless, among the slain, the duke of Saxe Lauenburg, cousin of Gustavus, was accused of having assassinated him (a common suspicion of the day, when a leader fell, though perhaps warranted by the recklessness regarding human life that in every nation prevailed); and that prince gave colour to the notion by passing soon after into the Austrian service—which he might have done through a sense of the indignity of being so unjustly charged. The great Gustavus fell in his 39th year; and, however deserving of regard for his good intentions, fell least lamented by those for whom he had died. The catholics of course rejoiced over the fall of a powerful adversary; and the protestants, now strong enough to act without a leader, were not sorry to be freed from a master whom they both envied and suspected. The war which Gustavus had kindled, continued to rage for no less than 16 years after his death; and all Germany, catholic and protestant, at length had good reason to cry out against the excesses of a profligate

soldiery, which, having entered the country under the plea of religion, had scourged it by rapine and bloodshed, and filled it with mourning and woe.

IRELAND UNDER CHARLES I.—The prodigious attainders of James's reign, however necessary, had operated in many instances very unjustly, through the oppression of the patentees; and as all the catholics of Ulster, whether concerned in the former disturbances or not, had been excluded from the lands of their fathers, a general conspiracy was at last entered into by them to expel their protestant dispossessioners, 1641. The unhappy dissensions that broke out between Charles and his English and Scottish parliaments, enabled the plot to mature undiscovered, under the management of Roger More, a gentleman of an ancient Irish family. He secretly maintained a close correspondence with lord Macguire, and sir Phelim O'Neale, the most powerful of the old Irish; and it was hoped that the English of *the pale*, or old English planters, being all catholics, would join the party, when they saw the ancient splendour and authority of their religion restored. A supply of French troops and arms was promised by cardinal Richelieu. The plan was that sir Phelim and his emissaries should raise the provinces, and attack the English settlements on the same day that lord Macguire and Roger More should surprise the castle of Dublin; and winter was fixed on for the revolt, that there might be more difficulty in transporting forces from England. News, which every day arrived from England, of the fury expressed by the commons against all papists, struck fresh terror into the whole Irish nation, and stimulated the conspirators promptly to execute their purpose. On the day, however, before the intended attack upon Dublin, O'Connolly, one of the confederates, a protestant, discovered the plot. The justices and council fled immediately to the castle, and reinforced the guards; the city caught the alarm;

and all the protestants prepared for defence. More escaped, but Macguire was taken; and Mahon, a partisan, being likewise seized, discovered to the justice the project of a general insurrection. But though O'Conolly's discovery saved the castle from a surprise, Mahon's confession came too late to prevent the intended insurrection. O'Neale and his confederates had already taken arms in Ulster; the houses, cattle, and goods of the English were first seized; and as those who heard of commotions in their neighbourhood, instead of deserting their houses, and assembling together for mutual protection, remained at home, in hopes of defending their property, they fell one by one into the hands of their enemies. An universal massacre now commenced, wherein neither age, sex, nor condition was spared; the stately buildings and commodious habitations of the planters were burned, or otherwise levelled with the ground; and where the miserable owners perished in the flames, a double triumph was afforded to their insulting foes. Such were the barbarities by which sir Phelim O'Neale and the Irish of Ulster signalized their rebellion. More, shocked at the recital of these enormities, flew to O'Neale's camp, but found that his authority, though sufficient to excite the Irish to insurrection, was too feeble to restrain their inhumanity; and he thereupon aban-

doned the cause, and retired to Flinders. From Ulster the flame spread to the three other provinces of Ireland; and no less than 40,000 persons perished, before the proceedings of the insurgents could be stayed. At last the Scots sent, at Charles's urgent request, a small body of forces, to protect their colonists in Ulster; but the English parliament only took advantage of the state of Ireland to raise money, ostensibly to crush the rebellion, but in fact to levy war against the king. The insurgents, therefore, were at liberty to follow out their views; and when Charles had commenced the contest with his parliament, he concluded a cessation of arms with the rebels, and recalled a considerable part of his army from Ireland. Some Irish catholics came over with these troops, and joined the royal army, wherein they continued the same cruelties and disorders to which they had been accustomed. The parliament voted that no quarter in any action should ever be given them; but prince Rupert, by making some reprisals, soon repressed this inhumanity. Until ten years after the outbreak, the rebellion in Ireland continued; eventually taking the turn (under the management of the marquis of Ormond,) of a defence of the monarchy against Cromwell's party. It was left for Cromwell, therefore, to extinguish it; and he did so with the most atrocious cruelty.

EMINENT PERSONS.

WILLIAM LAUD, son of a clothier at Reading, Berks, passed from the Free-school of Reading to St. John's College, Oxford; and, while one of its fellows, was accused (as men have been in every day since the Reformation, who endeavour to keep as many of the forms and observances of the primitive Church, as are agreeable to authorized tradition,) of inclining to popery. Abbot, then master of University College, so openly branded him as a papist, that it was almost (says Heylyn) made an heresy for any one to be seen in his company, and a

misprision of heresy to give him a civil salutation as he walked the streets. Neile, bishop of Rochester, whose chaplain he became, obtained him a stall at Westminster, 1609; and in 1611, having become president of St. John's College, he began seriously to turn his attention towards the state of the church. His devotion to this subject induced king James to take him with him into Scotland, 1617, for the purpose of modelling the Scottish church after the fashion to which both were desirous of bringing the church of England; and for this service Laud

was, in 1621, raised to the see of St. David's, whereon he most conscientiously resigned the presidentship of St. John's, though such was not the fashion among less disinterested men. His rise was now rapid: he was removed by Charles to Bath and Wells, and then to London, 1628, and upon Buckingham's death, 1629, became the king's chief minister, and in 1630 was elected chancellor of the University of Oxford. He commenced his premiership with a zealous attack upon the puritans, who had recently assailed episcopacy as the 'rag of Rome,' &c.; and Leighton, a physician, had his ears cropped, and was publicly whipped, by a sentence in the star-chamber, for a libellous assault on the bishops, entitled 'Sion's Plea.' In 1633, on Abbot's death, Laud was appointed archbishop of Canterbury, and soon after made a declaration that, in the disposition of ecclesiastical benefices, he would give a preference to the single man over the married, *cæteris paribus*. In 1636 the greatest power, since the Reformation, was given to the clergy, by placing the management of the treasury in the hands of Laud, who was constituted lord high treasurer of England; and so many of the sons of the nobility now took holy orders, that the puritan party began to cry out against what they called a popish government. 'Under Laud,' says Heylyn, 'the clergy were grown to such esteem for learning and power, that the gentry thought none of their daughters to be better disposed of than such as they had wedded to churchmen; and the nobility were grown so well affected to the church, that some of them designed their younger sons to the order of priesthood, to make them capable of rising in the ascendant.' But the career of Laud was now coming to a close. The sentences passed by the star-chamber against Bastwick, Burton, and Prynne, for libels against the church (all being fined, Prynne 5000*l.*, pilloried, stamped on each cheek S. L., 'schismatical libeller,' and their ears cut off,) greatly

inflamed the puritans, who had long been concerting the overthrow of both church and state; and soon after the announcement to printers, that all books must be licensed before publication, either by certain bishops or the two universities, the parliament launched out into complaints against Laud, and, refusing to grant supplies, was dissolved in May, 1640. The convocation of clergy, however, continued sitting, and formed 17 canons, which, when the long parliament assembled in the same year, were denounced as infamous and subversive of the constitution; and the archbishop, their supposed author, was committed to the Tower in December. It is impossible here to enter into the details of Laud's trial, of which he has himself written a full and faithful account. He defended himself throughout with courage and ability. The judges gave it to be understood that the charges contained no legal treason; whereupon the commons changed the impeachment into an ordinance for his execution, to which the lords assented. Though the archbishop produced a pardon from the king, the furious zealots of the long parliament threw it contemptuously aside; and the prelate was beheaded on Tower-hill, January, 1641, in his 72nd year. Laud's learning, piety, and integrity were undeniably great; and though we must censure his inclination for persecution in matters of opinion, (the sin of his day,) his fall was alone occasioned by an ill-judged though virtuous attempt to raise the church of England, not gradually, but at once, to the standing which she ought to have assumed at the moment of her separation from the parent stock. It was the prelate's misfortune to be invested with important secular offices, in addition to his ecclesiastical supremacy; a position which, in the state of parties, drew down destruction upon the church he hoped to establish.

THOMAS WENTWORTH, after completing his education at St. John's, Cambridge, succeeded to a family

estate of 600*l.* per year, and entering parliament 1621, espoused the popular party against the court. When Charles I. asserted that the commons enjoyed no privileges but by royal permission, Sir Thomas strenuously called on the house to maintain 'that their privileges were rights by inheritance.' When Charles, among other injudicious expedients for raising money, had recourse to a forced general loan, Wentworth decidedly refused to pay his contribution, and was first imprisoned in the Marshalsea, and then confined to a range of two miles round the town of Dartford. This restraint was, however, removed when it was necessary to summon a new parliament, 1628; and as member for Yorkshire, he became one of the most conspicuous advocates of the famous 'petition of right.' Having both proved the strength of his abilities, and the potency of his opposition, high terms were offered him by the court, which he finally accepted; and in 1628 he was created baron Wentworth. This defection especially excited the ire of his old friend Pym; and that determined republican vowed 'he would never leave him, till that traitorous head of his was held up by the common hangman to the scorn of the whole nation.' So influential did Wentworth now become in the royal councils, that he was made president of the four northern counties, and, at Laud's suggestion, sent lord-deputy to Ireland, 1632. He greatly improved the state of that country, both as regarded law, revenue, and trade, the manufacture of linen being his own creation; but his system of government was extremely arbitrary, it being his boast that he had rendered the king as absolute in Ireland 'as any prince in the whole world could be.' On the first symptom of resistance to the royal authority, he counselled the strongest measures; and after the failure of the king's first expedition against Scotland, he was sent for from Ireland, and created earl of Strafford. He returned to Ireland

with the full title of lord-lieutenant, the better to gain subsidies and troops; and again repaireing to England, he took the command in the north, but found himself obliged to retire before the Scottish army, and retreat to York. But who knows not the story of the earl of Strafford—how, as he rose in favour with the king, he lost all favour with the people—how Pym, his former friend, held to his word, and, at last, succeeded in impeaching him of high treason—how he rested not till the bill of attainder was carried through both houses—and when it was carried, how the same remorseless demagogue was chief manager of that conference, in which it was resolved that the king should be moved as speedily as possible to give his concurrence to the bill for the execution of the forsaken, persecuted Wentworth? It was Sunday—alas! no day of holy rest for king Charles. He had promised to give his decision on the bill against the earl on the Monday morning; but as yet he had discovered no way by which he might, at the same time, satisfy his own conscience and his discontented subjects. Even his queen, the high-souled and gentle Henrietta Maria, had caught the infection of his fears and doubts. But while the palace of Whitehall was thus the scene of irresolution and unhappiness, there was, in a little chamber of the Tower, one quiet and composed mind. As Strafford put off the favours of the world, he put on his greatness. He had early learned to live rather to God than to man—to make a conscience of little things—of thoughts, not of actions merely; and though he had too clear a judgment not to perceive that those who persecuted him to the death, were influenced by malicious motives, and that the charges against him, had they been true, could not by law have brought him to the scaffold, he bowed a convicted traitor, not against his king or his country, but against himself and his God. Nevertheless, for his wife and chil-

dren's sake, he had pleaded he might be spared, and had eloquently refuted every charge against him; but his petition had been rejected, and he finally remembered that the king, on calling the Long Parliament, had encouraged him not to fear the popular leaders, by the assurance 'that not a hair of his head should be touched by the parliament.' He thought of that sacred promise: but now his mind was changed. He had come to a noble resolution. In the confinement of his prison he had constantly received accounts of what was passing in the nation. He heard how all men raised their voices against his life, and how the king, having failed to draw them from their purpose, had become exposed to insolence, and even danger, on his account. Strafford hesitated not, therefore, to put in execution his lofty purpose:

It was in the banqueting-room that Charles held a privy council, to beg advice for his conscience, both from lawyers and prelates, in the case of Strafford. The bishop of Ely gravely told the king there was a private and a public conscience; assured him that his public conscience as a king might not only dispense with, but oblige him to do that which was against his private conscience as a man; and that the question was not, whether he would save the earl of Strafford, but whether he would perish with him. That the conscience of a king to preserve his kingdom, the conscience of a husband to preserve his wife, the conscience of a father to preserve his children (all which were now in danger), weighed down abundantly all the considerations the conscience of a master or a friend could suggest to him for the preservation of a friend or a servant. The bishop of London (Juxon) seemed to be the only single-minded man among them: he spoke out, and told the king truly, not that there were two consciences, but that if he was not satisfied in his one only conscience, he ought not to pass sentence on lord Strafford—he ought not to do it,

whatsoever might happen! The council was still sitting, the king still undecided; when a letter was put into his majesty's hand. Hastily he unfolded it; but his hands trembled, and his tears fell fast and heavily on the paper, as in silence he perused it. Once or twice he made an effort to read it aloud, but his voice failed him; and handing the letter to Juxon, he bade him read, telling all present, 'it was from Strafford—the noble prisoner Strafford.' When the prelate came to this passage, the king rose up, as if anxious to have its reading over, that he might speak, and yet even more desirous that not a word should fall unheeded on the ear: 'So now, to set your conscience at liberty, I do most humbly beseech your majesty, in prevention of mistakes which may happen by your refusal, to pass this bill, and by this means to remove (praised be God I cannot say this accursed, but I confess) this unfortunate thing forth out of the way, towards that blessed agreement which God, I trust, shall ever establish between you and your subjects. Sir, my consent shall herein acquit you more to God, than all the world can do besides. To a willing man there is no injury done. And as, by God's grace, I forgive all the world with a calmness and meekness of infinite contentment to my dislodging soul, so, sir, to you I can resign this world, with all its imaginable cheerfulness, in just acknowledgment of your exceeding favours.' 'You see,' said Charles (looking round the assembly, almost with a smile of triumph, his fine countenance cleared of every shade), 'you see how my own friend and counsellor writes, even from prison, to advise me. The question is therefore settled; and my conscience reproaches me that I saw it not thus from the first. Generous and admirable man! true and devoted friend! My lords, he should not suffer; no, not if the commons called for this head of mine, to meet the axe they have prepared for Strafford! Let us break up the council.'

Though it was the earl's settled conviction that his death was determined on by those who had more power to destroy than Charles to save, it was impossible but that some gleams of hope should visit him in his prison. He was busily and seriously engaged with his secretary, dictating some directions concerning the disposal of his property after his decease, when the keeper of the Tower entered his apartment, with a letter—brief, and signed by Charles—acquainting him that his majesty had felt himself obliged to listen to the voice of his people; that, against his will, and he might add, his conscience, he had yielded; that my lord Strafford's condition was more happy than his own; but, in short, that he had given his assent to the bill for the execution of his tried and faithful friend. Wentworth stared when the paper was put into his hand, and was stunned when he had perused it. He sat silently for several minutes; but at length slowly recovering, and speaking only to himself, in a voice low and sorrowful beyond description, he said, 'Put not your trust in princes, nor in any child of man; for in them there is no salvation!' He then turned calmly to his secretary, and continued his directions as before, forgetful, it might have seemed, that any interruption had occurred. But a brief period was allowed the earl between the day of his condemnation and that fixed for his death. Nearly his last act was the addressing of letters to his countess, then in Ireland, and to his son, 'his sweet Will,' as he so charmingly calls him. In them are handed down to us somewhat of the piety, the heavenly forgiveness, the sweet familiar tenderness of this illustrious man. They who saw him on the scaffold, might be well amazed at the perfect composure and dignity of his deportment there. He came forth among them, not as a miserable and convicted traitor, but as a true nobleman; with a courage that smiled calmly at all boldly suffering, and a piety at once

humble and inspiring. His scaffold seemed not what it really was, but an open hall of audience, where he presided as the chief man present,—where he courteously received those that loved him, and nobly forgave all who had offended him: and the impress of fear and even of death was to be seen, on that melancholy occasion, not in the countenance of the victim, but only in the faces of those who came to see him die. He fell, aged 48, 1641.

EDWARD COKE (1549—1634), born at Mileham, Norfolk, completed his education at Trinity College, Cambridge, and then entered at the Inner Temple. He pleaded his first cause as a barrister 1578, and was so successful, as to be appointed reader of Lyon's-inn, where his lectures for three years gained him additional celebrity. After holding various offices, he sat in the commons for Norfolk, and was chosen speaker 1592, and then successively solicitor and attorney-general; in which latter capacity he was employed in the prosecution of Essex and Southampton. He was knighted by James, but he disgraced himself by the violence of his conduct in managing the impeachment of the unfortunate Raleigh; while he again obtained notice by his eloquence against the gunpowder conspirators, and rose 1606 to be chief-justice of the common pleas, and in 1613, of the king's bench. Having refused to favour the new favourite Villiers in some pecuniary matter, he was removed in 1616 both from the council and his post of chief-justice; but meanly making up the breach by marrying his youngest daughter, with a large fortune, to the elder brother of Villiers, he was reinstated 1617. He was soon actively engaged in prosecutions for corruption of office and other crimes, in order to recruit an exhausted treasury by the infliction of exorbitant fines. As he, however, supported the privileges of the commons with great tenacity, he was, after the prorogation of parliament 1651, committed to the

Tower; and though quickly liberated, was again expelled the privy council, with peculiar marks of displeasure on the part of James. On the accession of Charles I., he was nominated sheriff of Buckinghamshire, to prevent his being chosen member for the county, which however he after all represented in the parliament of 1627. The remainder of his career was highly popular: he greatly distinguished himself by his speeches for redress of grievances; vindicated the right of the commons to proceed against any individual, however exalted; openly named Buckingham as the cause of the misfortunes of the kingdom; and finally sealed his services to the popular part of the constitution, by proposing and framing the famous 'Petition of Rights,' the most explicit declaration of English liberty which had then appeared. This was the last of his public acts. The dissolution of parliament, which soon followed, sent him in retirement to his house at Stoke Poges, in Buckinghamshire, where he spent the remainder of his life in tranquillity, dying, aged 85, 1634. Coke now lives in his 'Commentary on Littleton's Treatise on Tenures,' a work which may be considered a store-house of legal erudition; but though a great lawyer, the author was wholly wanting in the higher merits of systematic arrangement and regard to general principles, without which law is merely a collection of arbitrary rules, and unworthy the name of a science. Of Coke's disposition, James observed that he was the fittest instrument for a tyrant that ever was in England; and he used to call him 'the cat,' from his possession of that cunning and tact, which enabled him always to keep his legs in adversity.

FRANCIS QUARLES (1592—1644), the first of our religious poets, was son of the clerk of the green cloth to Elizabeth, and born at Rumford, Essex. After an education at Cambridge, he entered at Lincoln's-inn, and successively became cup-bearer

to the queen of Bohemia, daughter of James I., and secretary to archbishop Ussher in Ireland. The rebellion of 1641 drove him back to England; when he joined king Charles at Oxford, and had his property, on that account, sequestered. He was so much affected by his losses, especially by the deprivation of his books, that he sank into a low fever, and died, after a lingering illness, 1644, aged 52. Of his works, the most popular will always be his 'Emblems.' Many a modern poet has rifled this treasury, which, but for the engraved illustrations, would probably have been better known and appreciated. He displayed a defective taste in mingling images sacred and profane; but, with this single fault (for his quaintness is an ornament), he far excels the pious Herbert, and other serious poets, in smoothness of versification, and classical neatness. The freshness of the modern poetes, or *maker*, as the poet is still designated in Scotland, is observable in all his productions.

GUIDO RENI, son of a musician of Bologna, evinced early a taste for design, and was placed at 20 under Lodovico Carracci, who, on account of his beauty, made him the model of his angels. Adopting, in purposed opposition to the rough and bold style of Caravaggio, then in vogue, a delicate imitation of nature, he soon attracted notice; and on his accompanying Albani to Rome, Paul V. chose him to paint his private chapel of Monte Cavallo, and often came to see him work, which he was accustomed to do splendidly habited, and served by his pupils, arrayed around him in respectful silence. Guido was clearly vain of his abilities; he returned no visit of the great, quitted Rome in a pet for Bologna because of the slow payment by the papal treasurer, and would not return until the cardinals sent their carriages for him as for an ambassador. A habit of gaming at length ruined his finances; and he latterly wrote merely for bread, dying

at Bologna, aged 66, 1642. As Guido excelled in his celestial figures, the churches and palaces of Italy still teem with his productions; all of which want force and expression, at the same time that they excel in beauty, grace, and delicate colouring. Not one of them has yet descended to be sold in the usual way; and there is something of truth, therefore, in the Italian proverb, that 'his figures are of Paradise, and his pictures above price.'

PETER PAUL RUBENS, born at Cologne, turned his attention from belles-lettres to painting while at Antwerp; from which city the civil war drove his family. After studying under the best Flemish masters, he went to Italy, and in a stay there of seven years, marked the distinctive excellencies of Titian, Raffaele, Paolo Veronese, and Tintoretto, his chief prototypes. He was now invited to Paris by Maria de Medici to paint the Luxembourg gallery; and he became such a favourite with the infanta Isabella of Spain, that she sent him ambassador to England, to negotiate a peace, 1630. Here he painted the Banqueting-house for Charles, and was knighted by him. At length Philip IV. made him secretary of state in Flanders; where he died, after amassing a large fortune, aged 63, 1640. Familiar subjects, familiar histories, treated with great lustre and fulness of colouring, a richness of nature, and propriety of draperies, recommend themselves at first sight to the commonest observer of Rubens. The just boldness of his drawing, the wonderful chiaroscuro diffused throughout his pictures,—not loaded like Rembrandt's, to force out one peculiar spot of light—the fidelity to the manners and customs of the times he was representing, and attention to every part of his compositions, without enforcing trifles, or too much neglecting them, endear his works to the best judges. As he is perhaps the single artist who attracts the suffrages of every rank, his especial fame may be

said to arise from a defect of that majesty, dignity, and grace, which confine the works of the greatest masters to the fewest admirers; and this may account at once for the manifest failure of his scriptural pieces.

ANTHONY VANDYCK (1599—1641), born at Antwerp, became the pupil of Rubens, and in Italy studied the beauties of the Venetian school. On his return, the reputation of his historical pieces procured him an invitation from the court of France; but he preferred the patronage of Charles I. of England. That monarch knighted him, and allowed him a pension; and the painter, flattered by the court, and grown rich by the exertion of his pencil, married the beautiful daughter of Earl Gowrie, and supported the dignity of her rank by the ostentatious display of a magnificent equipage, and splendid table. He died, 1641, aged 42. The most celebrated of his pictures is a Descent from the Cross, preserved at Antwerp. His pieces in England are numerous, but chiefly portraits, all remarkable for delicacy of colouring; and from them he derived a more substantial remuneration than from historical subjects.

NICHOLAS POUSSIN, born in Normandy, studied painting at Paris, and in his thirtieth year visited Rome for the first time. Though unusually late for such a journey, he was enabled, after devoting much time to the contemplation of the sculptured heroes and various antiquities of the capitol, to embellish his own original good style by a rigid attention to the manners, customs, times, places, and decoration of the subjects he afterwards attempted to delineate. Louis XIII. sent him an invitation, which he could not refuse; but though he lodged in the Tuilleries, he sighed for the classic retreats of Rome, and at last returned, and died there, aged 71, 1665. His chief works are the Lord's Supper, and the Labours of Hercules, which he did not complete. All his productions are distinguished for elegance of form, correctness and

variety of proportion, and boldness of feature.

DOMENICCHINO, properly *Domenico Zampieri*, was born at Bologna, and studied under the Caracci. When called by his fellow students 'the ox,' on account of his slowness, Annibal Caracci predicted that he would 'plough a fruitful field,' and recommended him to the pope and other patrons of art at Rome. It was his custom to assume for a time the passion he was depicting; so that, while working by himself, he was often heard to laugh, weep, and talk aloud, in a manner that would have induced a stranger to suppose him mad. Having quitted the capitol for his native city, to work two years on his picture of the Rosary, he was recalled by Gregory XV., to be made architect of the Vatican; he next went to Naples, to paint the chapel of St. Januario; and there he unhappily met with so rancorous an opposition from rival artists, that he fell into a low fever, and died, aged 60, 1641. His Communion of St. Jerome has been reckoned the next piece in merit to the Transfiguration of Raffaele; and the history of Apollo which he painted, in ten frescoes, for cardinal Aldobrandini, is a very great work. He succeeded equally in the grand and tender, finished his pictures elaborately, and, though somewhat cold in his female expression, has been usually admired for the judicious blending of the classic elegance of his groups with the simple loveliness of nature.

RENE DESCARTES (1596—1650), born at La Haye, in Touraine, was educated by Jesuits, and then entered the Bavarian army, but quitted it on obtaining money by the death of a relative, 1621, to travel. Upon his return to Paris, he applied himself to the study of philosophy; but he was of an unsettled disposition, fixing his residence sometimes at Amsterdam, sometimes at Deventer; and when Louis XIII. had in vain invited him to return to Paris, he munificently settled on him a pension of

3000 livres, for his mathematical labours. At length the eccentric Christina induced him to remove to Stockholm, 1648, where he was soon admitted to her confidence, attending her every morning at five o'clock to instruct her in physics; but in two years his health suddenly declined, and he died, much to the sorrow of the Swedes, aged 54, 1650. Descartes effected a thorough revolution in geometry, by his talented application of algebra thereto; and to him the *modern geometry* is indebted for extended powers and capacities, to which the ancient system could not attain. The immediate consequence of his memorable discovery was that geometry at once oversprang the narrow limits which had circumscribed it for ages, and took a range, the extent of which is literally infinite. Instead of a few simple and particular curves, which had hitherto constituted the only objects of the science, the geometer discussed the properties of whole classes of curves, distinguished and arranged according to the degrees of the equations which represent them. The variety of curves thus become as infinite as that of equations. Descartes having thus brought geometry under the dominion of analysis, seems to have been misled into the splendid but visionary notion that the system of the world, and the philosophy of mechanics, might in like manner be established upon a theory arising out of a few first assumed axioms. His doctrine of vortices, therefore, and other hypotheses, have been unable to stand the test of truth; and posterity is indebted to him only (and this is enough) for showing the powers of ANALYSIS, which must now be allowed to stand at the head of at least all physical learning, and for reducing the laws of refraction, called dioptrics, to a science. The philosophy of Descartes, which is a compound of the peripatetic and Baconian, prevailed everywhere on the continent, until Voltaire supplanted it by the Newtonian system.

CONTEMPORARIES.—*Gasper Guzman de Olivarez*, count-duke of Spain, of an illustrious family, became prime minister, at 35, to Philip IV. on his accession, at 17, 1621, and remained 22 years at the head of affairs. In his foreign policy he strove to outwit cardinal Richelieu, the French minister, who laboured to depress both Austria and Spain, and to oppose Buckingham in England, who sided with the French or Spanish premier as interest prompted: but his measures were often unfortunate; and after seeing Catalonia revolt, Portugal detach itself from his country, and the colony of Brazil fall into the power of the Dutch, he was compelled by Philip to resign, 1643. Retiring hereon to Toro, he soon after died in a state of hypochondriasis, as mentioned in the novel of *Gil Blas*, aged 57, 1643. The private policy of Olivarez neglected agriculture, the mechanical arts, and commerce, by which alone a nation is raised to independence; though he is allowed to have effected some useful regulations, and to have encouraged marriage by an exemption from taxes. *George Villiers*, son of Sir George, began his travels on the continent without any previous education of moment, and acquired all the outward embellishments of a man of the world. On his return, he captivated James I. at a play represented by the Cambridge students, by his fine clothes and dashing air; and from that hour his rise began, through the grades of baron, earl, marquis, to that of duke of Buckingham. He was made master of the horse, warden of the cinque-ports, and soon became the disposer of every thing in church and state. In 1620 he married the earl of Rutland's daughter, the richest heiress in the kingdom; in 1623 accompanied the prince of Wales in his romantic visit to Madrid; but from that period his popularity daily declined. His dissolution of the parliament, to raise supplies by other contrivances, paved the way for his fall, which was at once consummated by his conduct

in the war with France. Instead of landing on the continent, he made an imprudent attack on the isle of Rhé, in which he lost the flower of his army: and while attempting to repair this disaster by raising a more powerful force wherewith to relieve Rochelle, he was stabbed by Felton at Portsmouth, in his 37th year, 1628.

Rupert of Bavaria, third son of the elector-palatine and James I.'s daughter, after roving as an exile, on account of his father's misfortunes, came to England at the outbreak of the civil war, and as a leader of his uncle's (Charles I.) cavalry, distinguished himself at Edgehill and Chalgrove-field, and took Bristol; but his impetuosity at Marston-Moor and Naseby contributed to the disastrous results of those engagements, and his surrender of Bristol to Fairfax occasioned Charles to dismiss him. During the Commonwealth, he carried on a predatory warfare against the English by sea; and having at length taken many prizes from the republicans, he sold them, and joined Charles II. at the court of Versailles. After the restoration he acted as an admiral, and as sole admiral in the war with the Dutch 1673. His last years were passed as governor of Windsor Castle; and in that delightful retirement he invented mezzotinto engraving, the compound known as prince's metal, &c. He died, aged 63, 1682. *Lucius Cary*, viscount Falkland, had been educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and St. John's, Cambridge; and though made gentleman of the bedchamber by Charles I., lived a life of learned ease at his seat of Burford, near Oxford, where Chillingworth and other men of talent partook of his hospitality. His peerage being a Scottish one, he sat in the commons, and so clearly took the popular side as to vote for depriving the bishops of their privileges as lords. When, however, he saw the leaders of parliament bent on undermining the monarchy, he at once declared his preference of the security of established forms, and even accepted the post of secretary of

state. Though he soon resigned office, through a conscientious objection to employ spies, open suspected letters, &c., he adhered to the royal cause, and attended Charles both at Edgehill and the siege of Gloucester. A view, however, of the evils impending over his country, at length weighed upon his spirits, and produced a melancholy, which a foolish trial of the 'Sortes Virgilianæ,' in his then nervous state, is recorded to have converted into despair. Resolved on dying on the field of battle, he dressed himself with especial care on the morning of Newbury fight, in which he was to have a command, and fell therein by a musket-shot, aged 34, October 27th, 1644. Among the registered sayings of the gifted Falkland is one which, like the maxims of Voltaire, will, for quaintness alone, go down to posterity: 'I pity,' he would observe, as he sat in his library, 'oh! how I pity unlearned gentlemen on a rainy day!'

Joseph Hall, the English Seneca, born of a good family at Bristow Park, Leicestershire, became fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge, tutor to Henry, prince of Wales, and bishop of Gloucester, 1627, from which he was translated to Norwich 1641. He was sent to the Tower for opposing the exclusion of the bishops from the lords, but released for 5000*l.*; and now shamefully deprived of his dignities, and reduced to poverty, he retired to a little farm at Heigham, near Norwich, and died in that seclusion, aged 82, 1656. The fruit of the excellent prelate's misfortunes and retreat from the world is his ever-during 'Meditations,' a most admirable Christian book. *Thomas Fuller*, born at Ake, Northamptonshire, after completing his education at Queen's and Sidney Colleges, Cambridge, took orders, and became preacher at the Savoy. A high tory sermon he preached there, caused the puritans to seek his life, 1642; and he fled to the king at Oxford, and was afterwards accidentally the chief defender of Basing House, compelling

Sir William Waller, the parliamentarian, to retire. He would have had a bishopric at the restoration, but died of a fever, aged 53, 1661. His 'Worthies of England' is most valuable for its provincial history, its anecdote, and its faithful pictures of the men and manners of his day. *James Ussher*, born in Dublin, and educated at Trinity College, was made archbishop of Armagh by James I., 1624. As primate of Ireland, he had much labour in conciliating the catholic party, accustomed as they were to regard ecclesiastical offices as their legal property; but he conducted himself with great dignity, propriety, and meekness, and gained the respect of all the better class of his opponents. He came to England 1640; but the Irish rebellion, wherein his palace was burned, prevented his return; the English civil war ensued; and during the Commonwealth, he resided in privacy, first in Wales, and then at Reigate, Surrey, where he died, aged 80, 1656. He left his library (10,000 volumes) to Trinity College, and is now known by his 'Annals of the Old and New Testament,' especially referred to for its supposed accurate chronology.

Robert Burton, born at Lindley, Leicestershire, and educated at Brazenose College, and Christ Church, Oxford, took holy orders, and died at his living of Segrave, Leicestershire, aged 63, 1639, on the day he had himself predicted his decease. He now lives in his incomparable 'Anatomy of Melancholy,' written to divert his own tendency to hypochondriasis; of which it is enough to say, that it is a repertory of wit and erudition, that Sterne and other writers have borrowed their best flowers therefrom, and that no library can be considered complete without it. *William Drummond*, son of Sir John, of Hawthornden, Scotland, devoted himself, with a good fortune, to literary pursuits, and has left the world some sonnets, which are a model of delicacy, sentiment, and tenderness. His attachment to the cause of Charles I.

was such, that the king's execution is said to have brought on his death, at the age of 64, 1649. *John Hales*, born at Bath, became celebrated for his Greek proficiency at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and was elected fellow of Merton. After being Greek professor in his university, he was chosen a fellow of Eton College, 1613; but was eventually deprived, 1645, for refusing to subscribe the Covenant, and retired to the country, where he died, aged 72, 1656. 'The Golden Remains of the ever-memorable Mr. John Hales of Eton College,' are with us to vouch for the sound theology and deep learning of the venerable author, who was indebted to Laud for his orthodoxy. 'Laud ferreted me' he tells us, 'out of calvinism, and low-church propensities.' *George Abbott*, a poor clothworker's son, obtained an exhibition at Oxford by means of the free-school of his native town, Guildford, Surrey, and rose to be archbishop of Canterbury, succeeding Bancroft, 1610. Before his highest advancement, he had been a strict supporter of the severities of the court of high commission; but on reaching it, he became the advocate of popular rights. Clarendon and Fuller both observe that 'had not the system of Whitgift and Bancroft been interrupted by Abbott's changed principles, calvinism and dissent would have been rooted out of England, and the convulsions of this reign have been prevented.' Abbott's fortunes were clouded by his accidental shooting of a park-keeper, during a stag-hunt in Lord Zouch's park in Hampshire; his enemies enlarging upon an archbishop's indulgence in secular sports, though then a common practice, and his own remorse making him deeply penitent. Opposed as he had become, since his change both political and polemical, to Laud, he was occasionally involved in fierce disputes with that person, his successor, and died, aged 71, 1633. *Owen Felltham*, secretary to the countess of Thomond during the civil

wars, and who died a layman and bachelor 1678, is only now known by his 'Resolves,' a book of essays, in character far above the usual ethical productions of his day. The author possessed a sufficiency of that highest Christian virtue, charity, to view human actions and intentions in their fairest light. *Edmund Gunter*, born in Wales, was educated at Westminster, and Christ Church, Oxford, and became astronomy-lecturer at Gresham College, 1619. Besides improving mathematical instruments, he contrived that valuable rule of proportion called 'Gunter's Scale,' which affords an easy method of combining arithmetic and geometry, (from which junction so many important truths have been discovered) especially adapted for popular use. Gunter died, aged 45, 1626.

George Herbert, brother of Edward lord Herbert, was educated at Westminster, and became fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge. James I. gave him a sinecure post of 120*l.* per annum for his official Latin letter of thanks, in return for the king's present of the Basilikon Doron to the university; but as he had no chance of rising at court after James's death, he took holy orders, and in the retirement of his livings, especially at Bemerton, Wilts, not only became distinguished for the strict performance of his pastoral duties, but for munificence, and literary excellence. His poetry, as found in his 'Country Parson,' a quaint medley of verse and prose, though, like that of the other writers of his day, deformed by point and antithesis, bears the stamp of true genius; and there are few more valuable ethical productions than the portion styled 'The Church Porch.' Herbert died of consumption, aged 40, 1633. *Peter Heylyn*, born at Burford, Oxon, became fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford, took holy orders, but was obliged to hide himself during the civil war. He was to have been rewarded for his sufferings at the Restoration with a bishopric, but died of a fever, aged

62, 1660. His 'Microcosmus, or History of the World,' which swelled, in frequent editions, from a small 8vo to a ponderous folio, was long regarded by the few readers of England as a repertory of all necessary knowledge, scriptural excepted. *Henry Wotton*, born at Bocton Hall, Kent, was educated at Winchester, and New and Queen's Colleges, Oxford, and became secretary to Essex. On the death of the earl, he escaped to Florence, and was sent by the duke to James VI. of Scotland, to apprise him of an English conspiracy against him. When James became king of England, Wotton was knighted, and went ambassador to Venice, Holland, and Germany; but on obtaining the provostship of Eton for his services, he took holy orders, and devoted his remaining years to literature, dying, aged 71, 1639. He never completed his histories of the reformation, &c.; and is now best known by his sensible fugitive poetry. *John Speed*, a tailor of Farington, Cheshire, abandoned the needle for the pen, and wrote a History of Great Britain to the close of the Norman reigns, containing much valuable antiquarian information, gleaned from authors now lost. Speed died in competency, through his work, aged 74, 1629. *John Selden*, born at Salvington, Sussex, completed his education at Hart Hall, Oxford, and then studied the law. He was a member of the long parliament, on the liberal side, but concurred neither in the prosecution of Strafford, nor in the abrogation of episcopacy; and though James I. had imprisoned him for his impeachment of Buckingham, Charles thought of making him his chancellor. He continued in parliament after the king's death, but refused Cromwell's direction to refute the Eikon Basilike. He died in some post in the countess of Kent's house, aged 70, 1654. The 'Table Talk' of Selden is that by which he is now known; and it gives us a fair notion of what may be styled the reputed 'learned man of his day.'

The Three Sandys.—These were

Edwin Sandys, archbishop of York, under Elizabeth, and his two sons. The archbishop had, while master of Catherine Hall, Cambridge, taken up the cause of lady Jane Grey, and been an exile on the continent throughout Mary's reign. He even offended his patroness Elizabeth, by his desire to renew the persecution of the catholics, and died, aged 69, 1588. Edwin, his eldest son, was a lay-prebendary under James, but was imprisoned for his parliamentary opposition to court measures. He gave 1500*l.* to found a metaphysical chair at Oxford, and died, aged 68, 1629. George, the youngest son, is known by his published travels in the Holy Land, whither he went on leaving Corpus Christi College, Oxford. He paraphrased the Metamorphoses in a style far above the poets of his day, and died, aged 84, 1643. *Philip Massinger*, born at Salisbury, left St. Alban's Hall, Oxford, on turning catholic, and became a play-writer. He ranks next to Shakspeare in tragedy, though greatly inferior to him in comedy; and he has the claim of that great poet over Jonson, of drawing his characters from nature, and not from the figurantes of a day. He died, aged 54, 1639. *Edward Pococke*, on leaving Corpus Christi College, Oxford, became chaplain to the English factory at Aleppo. Laud gave him his own newly founded chair of Arabic at Oxford; and though deprived by the civil war, he received preferment at the Restoration, and died, aged 87, 1691. His travels in the East are still deservedly read and referred to. *Pierre Gassendi*, born in Provence, became known at 19, as lecturer in the college of Aix, where he opposed the peripatetic system, and supported the epicurean. But it is only as an astronomer that we need regard him. In support of the Copernican system, against Descartes, he distinctly pointed out the analogy between the laws of motion, as deduced by mechanical writers, and the motion of the earth; and proved that a body carried along by

another, acquires a motion which it retains after it has ceased to be so carried. This last referred to the old arguments of the Ptolemaists against the earth's motion, lately revived by Morin. Gassendi was the first to observe the transit of a planet (Mercury) over the sun, 1631; a fact satisfactorily proving the truth of the system of elliptic orbits. He took holy orders, was made regius professor of mathematics by Richelieu, 1645, and died, aged 63, 1655.

Wenzel Hollar, born at Prague, left that city at its sacking, and was brought by lord Arundel, minister at the court of Ferdinand I., to England, where he became teacher of design to the prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II. When the civil war began, he ran some risk from the roundheads, who, offended at his preserving so many heads of the cavaliers by his engravings, threatened to take his own, if he did not desist, after their own fashion, or, as Hood would say, with a *steel cut*. He therefore joined the royalists, was taken prisoner at Basing House, escaped, and at the Restoration was regarded as the first engraver of his day. The great fire of London brought him to poverty, a state from which he never again emerged; and he died, aged 70, 1677. The etchings of Hollar include the noble collection of lord Arundel, and the choicest pieces from Titian, Durer, Holbein, Vandyck, and Teniers, as well as the heads of all the eminent English of his day; and they are remarkable for softness and delicacy, considering the state of the art of engraving in his time. *Peter Lely*, born in Westphalia, studied at the Hague, and came to England 1641, where his landscapes and historical pictures were much noticed. Still he saw portrait-painting to be the only lucrative branch of the art; and he became a pattern for the grace and nature of his heads, the tastefulness of his postures, and the ease of his draperies. Charles I. patronised him, Charles II. knighted him; and he

died in England a wealthy man, aged 63, 1680. *Inigo Jones*, born in London, was noticed, when apprenticed to a cabinet-maker, by lord Pembroke, for his taste in design, and enabled by that nobleman to visit Italy. Christiern IV. of Denmark met with him at Venice, and brought him back in his suite to England; where Elizabeth made him architect of the royal works. Under James I. he was a commissioner for repairing St. Paul's, and manager of the masques; but he lost most of his property and all his appointments by the civil wars, and died, aged 80, 1652. Jones's chief remaining English architectural works are the piazza in Covent Garden, and the banqueting-house, Whitehall. He introduced into England the Grecian style in house-building; and many of his edifices exist, and are easily distinguished by their level base, without any approach by steps, or underground excavation. *Robert Cotton*, born at Denton, Huntingdonshire, and educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, became celebrated as a collector of ancient manuscripts and as an antiquary, and was knighted by James I. In the reign of Charles, he had his property threatened with confiscation, on the ground of his alleged maintenance of principles destructive of order, as shown by a MS. in his collection; and the circumstance broke his heart, at the age of 61, 1631. Sir R. Cotton is now known as the founder of the Cottonian library, consisting of laboriously collected MSS., many of them highly valuable, the bulk of which are in the British Museum. *Christiern Longomontanus*, born in Denmark, was son of a labourer, and became an eminent astronomer, and for several years the assistant of Tycho Brahe. He was celebrated in his time for his supposed discovery of that visionary pretension, the quadrature of the circle, the attempted solution of which has, in various ages, cost so many their reason. 'It certainly has not been demonstrated,' says professor

Powell, 'that the circumference and diameter of a circle are incommensurable; but every argument from analogy and probability leads us to believe it.' Archimedes and Apollonius gave the ratio as that of 1250 to 3927, which is a very near approach; but, as Mr. Powell observes, all enquirers have pursued their pretended solution by any path except that to which the very conditions of the problem restrict it, namely, 'strictly geometrical demonstration by elementary methods.' That to attain this is impossible, we have every degree of assurance short of actual demonstration. Longomontanus died at Copenhagen 1647, and has left us '*Astronomia Danica*,' giving a valuable account of Regiomontanus' and Brahe's discoveries.

Edward Fairfax, a poet under James and Charles, regarded by Dryden as superior to Spenser. His chief work was a translation of Tasso's *Gerusalemme*; and he died 1632. *William Oughtred*, educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, took holy orders, and managed to keep his living at Aldbury, near Guildford, throughout the usurpation, though more than once imprisoned as a royalist. He is celebrated as a mathematician, and for the many new theorems in algebra and geometry in his '*Clavis*,' afterwards adopted by the great Newton. On hearing the news of king Charles's restoration, he expired in a sudden ecstasy of joy, aged 86, 1660. *Simon Episcopius*, born at Amsterdam, took orders, and as head of the remonstrant party against the anti-remonstrants, stood forth the able champion of the Arminian opinions at the Hague. The calvinistic party obtained his expulsion from the states at the famous council of Dort, 1618; but returning to Holland with the other Arminian exiles, on the death of his enemy, prince Maurice, 1625, he was chosen minister of the remonstrant church of Rotterdam, and principal of the Arminian College, subsequently founded at Amsterdam, where he died, aged

51, 1634. *Albert Wallenstein*, duke of Friedland, born a protestant, embraced the old tenets, and entered the army of the emperor Ferdinand II., with the proviso that he might have the command of a force of volunteers raised by himself. The emperor was compelled to dismiss him for his severity to the protestants, when they were called on to relinquish the church-lands that had been in their possession since the treaty of Passau. When Gustavus Adolphus had beaten Tilly at Leipsic, Wallenstein was gladly restored, and declared head of the catholic army by the emperor, 1632, with power to act independently of the council of Vienna. He was, however, defeated by the Swedes at Lutzen; and instead of taking advantage of his subsequent successes over the enemy when they followed him into Bohemia, he engaged in an ambitious scheme to acquire Bohemia for himself, and is said to have even negotiated with the officers of the protestants to further his design. The emperor, when aware of the plot, deprived Wallenstein of command; the latter offered his services to the Swedes; and when 52 of the general's officers had subscribed to follow his fortunes any where, Piccolomini, one of the party, revealed the whole to the emperor. Wallenstein, now proclaimed a traitor, retired to Egra, a place garrisoned by some Irish troops on whom he thought he could rely; but Butler, an Irish colonel, with Lesley and Gordon, two Scottish officers, hoped for pardon and preferment by assassinating a declared traitor, and accordingly attacked and slew him in his apartment with their swords, 1633. Wallenstein had throughout life been a dabbler in astrology; and all his misfortunes are said to be traceable to his reliance on the predictions of professors of the occult science. What share the emperor had in his death, if any at all, it is impossible now to ascertain; his memory, however, is charged by German writers with originating the murder.

Henry Gellibrand, born in London, and educated at Trinity College, Oxford, succeeded Gunter as professor of astronomy at Gresham College. He was called by Laud before the star-chamber for the publication by his servant Beale of an almanac for 1631, wherein the protestant martyrs (taken from Fox's book) were inserted in lieu of the old saints of the calendar; and after being admonished, was acquitted. He wrote on longitude, the magnetic needle, &c., and completed Briggs's Trigonometry, dying, aged 39, 1636. *James Callot*, a French engraver, who brought his art, like Hollar, to the highest perfection for his day, and who left 1380 finished works, comprising battles and other historical subjects, chiefly undertaken for Louis XIII. He died, aged 43, 1636. *Joseph Mede*, born at Berden, Essex, became a fellow of Christ's College, Cambridge, and Greek lecturer on Sir Walter Mildmay's foundation; in which capacity he deeply studied the history of the Chaldeans and Egyptians. He is now celebrated for his 'Clavis Apocalyptica,' a very talented attempt to explain the obscure prophecies of scripture to which it refers. Mede died, aged 52, 1638. *John Greaves*, born at Colmore, Hants, became fellow of Merton College, Oxford, and professor of geometry in Gresham College. Under the patronage of Laud, he made a tour of Italy and Egypt in search of coins, &c., returning 1640, in the midst of the troubles of the kingdom. Being a staunch royalist, he was soon ejected from the Savilian chair, which had been given him for his services; whereon he devoted the rest of his life to the publication of works of antiquity. From the Roman foot and denarius he deduced an able comparative view of the other weights and measures of ancient times. He died, aged 50, 1652. *Olaus Wormius*, born in Denmark, became eminent as a physician at Copenhagen, where Christiern IV., in recompence of his services in his own case, made him a canon of Lun-

den Cathedral. He was a staunch defender of Aristotle; but is best remembered by his authentic works on Scandinavian antiquities and Danish history. He died, aged 66, 1654. *William Bedell*, born at Black Notley, Essex, became fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge, took orders, and accompanied Sir Henry Wotton in his embassy to Venice. The oligarchy was at the moment (1604), attempting to throw off the papal yoke; and Bedell entered warmly into the dispute between Paul Sarpi and Paul V., siding with Father Paul. After many years of retirement, Morton, bishop of Durham, drew him therefrom to be made provost of Dublin University, 1627; and in 1629 he was raised to the united see of Kilmore and Ardagh. When the Irish rebellion began, 1641, bishop Bedell's residence was almost the only one spared by the catholics, so much did they respect his character; but when he offered it as an asylum to the distressed protestants, and refused to dismiss the refugees, he was, together with his family, seized and conveyed to a ruinous castle in the midst of a lake, where he soon died from the harass he had experienced, aged 70, 1642. The Irish insurgents resolved on doing honour to his remains, notwithstanding their harshness to him in life; and while they fired a volley over his grave in Kilmore churchyard, where they had allowed him to be buried, they shouted 'Requiescat in pace, ultimus Anglorum!' The chief work of the worthy prelate was a translation of the Old Testament into Irish.

Marin Mersenne, born at Oyse in France, became a friar *minim* at Nevers. He is now remembered as the inventor of the *cycloid*, more judiciously called by him 'the curve roulette,' (the origination of which is wrongly ascribed to Galilei), being the curve which is traced out by any point of a circle rolling on a straight line. *Kukloides*, 'like a circle,' is an absurd term to express this geometrical figure. While the wheel of

a carriage revolves, each nail on the circumference describes a succession of cycloids; and these cycloids are simple curves in comparison of those made by the points of circles which roll within or without other circles. Mersenne gained great repute as a lecturer on philosophy, and by his scientific inquiry into harmony, as connected with music. He states that there were in his time 50,000 atheists in Paris: what would the worthy friar make the number now, could he take his old chair in the Sorbonne, in the boasted 19th century? He died, aged 60, 1648. *John Baptist Van Helmont*, born at Brussels, became a physician, but, performing some remarkable cures, his jealous brethren reported him a magician, and he was actually examined by the Inquisition on the charge, at Louvain. He therefore retired to Holland, and was highly successful as before, using, he affirmed, only vegetable remedies. Lobkowitz, his biographer, states that he was sent chiefly to those who had been given over by other physicians; to whose great indignation, the patients were often unexpectedly restored to health. His practice was clearly not regular, as he was a sworn enemy to Galen and Aristotle; and even Lobkowitz admits that the sick never languished long under his hands, 'being always killed or cured in two or three days.' He died, aged 81, 1699. *Jacques Sirmond*, born at Riom in France, became a Jesuit, and acted at Rome 16 years as secretary to the general of his order, Aquaviva. He was then appointed confessor to Louis XIII.; and after devoting his latter days to editing 26 folio volumes of theology, died, aged 92, 1651. *Christopher Scheiner*, a Jesuit, born at Mecklenburgh, is famous for being the first to notice spots on the disc of the sun. Numerous pretenders endeavoured to deprive him of the merit of the discovery; but he has the fullest claim thereto. He died rector of the Jesuits' College at Neisse, in Silesia, aged 62, 1650. *Willebrod*

Snellius, professor of mathematics at Leyden, first discovered the true laws of the refraction of light. He died, aged 35, 1626.

Caspar Schopp, or Scioppius, born in the Palatinate, went to Rome as a poor author, and obtained the patronage of Clement VIII., and gave up the reformed tenets for the old form. He was even created a knight of St. Peter, and count Claravalle, but disgraced his honours by the virulence and rancour with which he entered into controversy with Joseph Scaliger and others. Having assailed our James I. in his 'Ecclesiasticus,' some Englishmen, when Schoff was at Madrid, 1613, cudgelled him well in the streets for his invective. He latterly became as much involved in polemics with the Jesuits as with the protestants, and died at Padua, aged 73, 1649. Schoff's notes on Sanctius, Varro, Apuleius, &c., are what his fame now rests on. *Claude Saumaise*, or Salmasius, born at Saumur in France, succeeded Joseph Scaliger as history professor at Leyden; and having in 1649 written a defence of Charles I. of England, he was virulently attacked by the great but republican Milton in his 'Defensio pro Populo Anglicano.' Devoting himself to criticism, he produced valuable commentaries on Epictetus, Florus, and other classic authors, besides writing on Roman military affairs, &c.; and so much was he esteemed at Leyden, that when detained by Christina of Sweden at Stockholm, the curators of the university applied for his return to her Majesty, telling her that 'as the world could not subsist without the sun, neither could their university without Saumaise.' The professor was graciously received by the king of Denmark on his way home, and conducted, laden with presents, to the frontiers of his state; but the fatigue of his visit and journey occasioned his death at Spa, before he could reach Leyden, aged 65, 1653. *Giovanni Battista Riccioli*, born at Ferrara, became a Jesuit, and a distinguished astronomer. His

'*Astronomia Reformata*,' wherein he compared the previous systems, and struck out numerous amendments, is the work on which his celebrity is built. He died, aged 73, 1671. *Gilles, sieur de Roberval*, born at Roberval in Beauvais, displayed much taste for physics, and determined the area of the cycloid (*see Mersenne*) to be three times that of the generating circle, or rolling wheel. Torricelli laid also claim to the discovery simultaneously, and thus proved its correctness. Roberval died, aged 73, 1675. *Bonaventura Cavalieri*, a disciple of Galilei, born at Milan, became professor of mathematics at Bologna, and celebrated for originating the doctrine of indivisibles, in illustration of the infinitesimal calculus, or geometry of infinites—that part of the science of quantity dependent on the extension of the ancient method of limits. The principle on which Cavalieri sought to avoid the embarrassments of the ancient methods, was by adopting a phraseology at variance with the first definitions of geometry, as of *areas* made up of an infinite number of parallel lines, *solids*, of an infinite number of planes, and *lines*, themselves of an infinite number of points. Thus, when these series of planes or lines respectively were arranged according to a permanent law, and such that their sums could be assigned, the contents of the solids and areas of the curves were then found. He pursued his method into many valuable solutions and results, and deduced some important theorems as regards the areas of spherical triangles. He died at Bologna, aged 49, 1647. *Maurice Hoffmann*, a physician of Altorf, discovered the *pancreatic duct*, 1641. He was dissecting a turkey; and Virsungius subsequently demonstrated the viscus in the human body. Hoffmann died, aged 77, 1698. *Jeremiah Horrox*, born at Toxteth, near Liverpool, and educated at Emanuel College, Cambridge, devoted himself to astronomy, and was the first to observe a transit of Venus over the sun's

disc, 1639, as predicted by Kepler, who did not live to enjoy the triumph of witnessing a phenomenon furnishing at once so satisfactory a proof of the truth of the system of elliptic orbits. Horrox himself was not aware of the full advantages derivable from what he had observed; but that he was a physical genius of the first order is attested by Newton, who admitted the aid he derived from his theory of lunar motions. Horrox died, aged only 22, 1641.

Don Pedro Calderone, of the rich family of La Barca, was first a soldier, and then canon of Toledo. He at length turned his attention to the stage, and became one of the most esteemed comic authors of Spain, being celebrated for the ingenuity of his plots. As a writer he is inferior to Lope de Vega; but the Spaniards admire even his coarseness. His comedies and mysteries are very voluminous; and he died, aged 46, 1650. *John Meursius*, born at the Hague, became tutor to Barneveldt's sons, and professor of history to the states of Holland; but on the execution of his patron, he retired to Sora, where the king of Denmark gave him a similar chair, and where he died, aged 60, 1639. His works, all in Latin, are on classical subjects, and especially connected with Athenian history. *William Chillingworth*, born at Oxford, and educated at Trinity College there, was converted to catholicism, but recovered to the protestants by Laud. In 1637 his '*Religion of Protestants, a safe way to Salvation*,' caused an extraordinary stir, even catholics applauding his candour; and the book remains a fine monument of the author's logical acumen, and conversance with theology. Having taken orders, he obtained a prebend, and the mastership of Wigton's hospital; but in the civil wars he took up arms for king Charles, and was made prisoner at the siege of Arundel by Sir William Waller. In a few days after that event he died, aged 42, 1644. *Thomas Gataker*, born in London, and educated at St. John's, Cambridge, became fellow of

Sidney College, preacher of Lincoln's-inn, and vicar of Rotherhithe. He endeavoured to take a middle path in affairs of both church and state during the civil war; but, though praised for his moderation, we still think it was a time in which to be boldly either for or against. He therefore subscribed the covenant, but defended the king, attacked the independents but assailed the high principles of the Church; and all we can say of him is, that he was a man of benevolent intentions, an erudite scholar, and has left us a very valuable commentary on the Great Prophets. He died, aged 80, 1654. *Francesco Quevedo de Villegas*, born at Madrid, was a knight of St. Jago. He was imprisoned for a satire on the famous Olivarez, but was released on that minister's death, and died himself, aged 57, 1647. He was a satiric poet and prose writer of eminence, but is only known in England by a translation of his 'Visions of Hell,' which has long been popular in most countries for its peculiar humour.

Vossius, the name of a celebrated family of Dutch critics. Gerard John Vossius (1577—1649), after acting as director of the theological college of Leyden, was expelled for anti-remonstrant principles when the rival sect was in power, and came to England, where he obtained a stall in Canterbury Cathedral. Returning to his country, he was made professor of history in the new university of Amsterdam, and died there. His son Dionysius wrote notes on Maimonides, and died, aged 22, 1633; his next son, Gerard, edited *Paterculus*, with notes, and died 1640; his third son, Matthew, wrote a history of Holland, and died 1646; his fourth son, Isaac, taught queen Christina of Sweden Greek, and was courteously received in England by Charles II., who made him canon of Windsor, with apartments in the Castle, where he died 1688. Isaac, however, was a libertine and deist; and even king Charles said of him,

'There is nothing which Vossius refuses to believe, except the Bible.' While his father was all judgment, Isaac was, in his writings, all imagination; and parent and child were the true effigies of tory and radical. The one laboured slowly, the other proceeded with railroad ease; the father distrusted the best-founded conjectures, the son loved nothing but conjectures; the former's aim was to instruct, the latter to make a noise; truth was the father's object, and novelty the son's. The filthy commentary of Isaac on Catullus, shows how carelessly church preferment was bestowed in the second Charles's time. There was a brother also of the elder Vossius, Francis, author of a Dutch poem on a naval triumph of Van Tromp, who died 1645; and a first cousin, another Gerard, who enriched Gregory Thaumaturgus and Chrysostom with splendid notes, and who died 1659. *Athanasius Kircher*, born at Fulda, entered the Jesuits' college at Avignon, and became celebrated as an orientalist; a taste which led him into vain attempts to decipher the Egyptian hieroglyphics, and to give to the world strange accounts of the ancient Babel, China, the ark &c. The father claimed to be the inventor of the speaking trumpet, æolian harp, and magic lantern; and he died at Rome, aged 67, 1680. *Conrad Kircher*, a kinsman of the father, compiled an admirable concordance of the Old Testament in Hebrew and Greek, the corresponding words of the Greek being arranged under those of the Hebrew. He died 1656. *John Kircher*, another relative, was noted for his defence of catholicism, to which he had been converted from protestantism, his work provoking a long polemical controversy in Germany. He died in Hungary 1642. *Denis Petau*, or Petavius, born at Orleans, became one of the most learned among the Jesuits, and was made professor of philosophy at Bourges. As a chronologist he was especially eminent, and his Latin is

remarkably pure and classical. Besides his works in defence of his church, he translated the psalms into Greek verse, and died, aged 69, 1652. *Daniel Heinsius*, born at Ghent, succeeded Joseph Scaliger at Leyden, as professor of politics and history, and greatly aided literature by his learned notes on the chief Greek and Latin authors. He died, aged 75, 1655. *Geoffrey Hudson*, a dwarf, who headed a troop in king Charles's army, and on one occasion commanded a ship in the royal fleet. His first appearance at court was in a pie, whence he emerged at an entertainment given by the duke of Buckingham to Charles I. and Henrietta Maria. Till thirty he was scarcely twenty inches in height; but he then grew to forty-five inches. His life was full of misfortunes. He was provoked by a Mr. Crofts to fight a duel, to get rid of his frequent jeers respecting his diminutive size, and killed his adversary; he was then taken captive by a Turkish pirate, and carried to Barbary; and ultimately, after the Restoration, being a catholic, he was imprisoned in England till his decease, on suspicion of being concerned in the popish plot.

Richard Norwood, an Englishman, was the first to measure a degree of the meridian in this country, which he did 1635, the operations being carried on between London and York. He died 1675. *Pierre Vernier*, born at Ornans in Burgundy, became commandant of the castle of Ornans, councillor to the king of Spain, and director-general of the mint in Burgundy. He had considerable mathematical skill, and invented a means for rendering accurate the 'reading off,' as it is termed, of the indications of the index on the divided arc of any astronomical instrument. The vernier (the instrument he thus originated) is an invention hardly to be surpassed for refinement of principle and simplicity of application, and is still acknowledged perfect. Vernier died, aged 59, 1687. *John Wallis*, born at Ashford, Kent, completed

his education at Emanuel College, Cambridge, and took holy orders. In 1644 he acted as a secretary in the assembly of divines at Westminster, was one of the first members of the association which gave birth to the Royal Society, and was in 1649 made Savilian professor at Oxford by the parliamentary visitors. His skill in cryptography, or deciphering, having rendered him serviceable to the royal cause, Charles II. made him one of his chaplains at the Restoration, and confirmed him in his living of Fenchurch, London, and in his professorship; and though he had been tinged with presbyterian notions, he now conformed to the Church. He died, aged 87, 1703. Wallis most advanced abstract science by his 'Arithmetic of Infinites,' in which we may trace the germs of those methods, which subsequently, in the hands of Newton, received an expansion fitting them for the purposes of analysing the most complex laws of physical phenomena. The principles adopted by Wallis were not yet so far developed as to be understood in the full extent, or to exhibit the power they really possessed; nevertheless he was enabled to pursue the subject of quadrature upon much more general grounds than any of his predecessors, and to extend his solutions much beyond his contemporary Mercator's limited portion of the subject. (*See N. Mercator.*) *Gaspar Aselli*, a physician of Cremona, discovered the lacteal veins in the mesentery, 1625. He died at Paris, 1626.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1623, Morad IV.; 1640, Ibrahim; 1649, Mohammed IV. POPES.—1623, Urban VIII.; 1644, Innocent X. FRANCE.—1610, Louis XIII.; 1643, Louis XIV. SWEDEN.—1611, Gustavus II. (Adolphus); 1633, Christina. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1588, Christiern IV.; 1648, Frederick III. SPAIN AND PORTUGAL. 1621, Philip IV. GERMANY.—1619, Ferdinand II.; 1637, Ferdinand III. PORTUGAL ALONE.—1640, John IV.

POLAND.—1587, Sigismund III. of Sweden; 1632, Vladislaus VI.; 1648, John II. (Casimir). RUSSIA.—1613, Mikhail I. (Romanov); 1645, Alexis I. PERSIA.—1485, Abbas I. (the Great); 1628, Sâfi; 1641, Abbas II. NETHERLANDS.—1584, Maurice;

1625, Frederick Henry; 1647, William II. CHINA.—1643, Shum-chi. DELHI.—1605, Jehangir; 1628, Shah Jehan. HUNGARY.—1625, Ferdinand III., emperor; 1647, Ferdinand IV., emperor.

PERIOD THE TWELFTH.

FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COMMON-WEALTH TO THE REVOLUTION.

1649 TO 1688—39 YEARS.

REIGN CLXVI.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649 TO 1660—11 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY OF CROMWELL.—Oliver Cromwell was son of Robert, second son of Sir Henry Cromwell, of Hinchinbrook, which Robert was a wealthy brewer at Huntingdon, where Oliver was born, 1599. He received his education in the grammar-school of his native town, and at Sidney College, Cambridge. Foot-ball, cricket, and other exercises, however, were more congenial to his pursuits than humane letters; and therefore his mother, now a widow, sent him in 1618 to study law at Lincoln's-inn. Irregularities here prevailed, and licentious pleasures engaged Oliver's attention more than the law; but at 21 he married Elizabeth, daughter of Sir James Bouchier of Essex, and retired to Huntingdon. Some time after, he removed into the Isle of Ely, (where his uncle had left him an estate of 400*l.* a year,) and turned puritan. He was elected into parliament 1628, and was violent against the bishops; but the warmth with which he supported the preachers of his own persuasion reduced his fortunes, and obliged him to take a farm at St. Ives. Here he nearly ruined himself; and in 1637 he formed the plan of passing over to New England, which he was ominously prevented accomplishing by a proclamation from the king against emigration. Distinguished among the puritans for his gifts of preaching, praying, and expounding, he had the interest to recommend himself to the corporation of Cambridge, and to be chosen again a member of parliament 1640. In the house, he was a frequent, though rough and inelegant speaker; and he supported with great energy the noted 'Remonstrance' of 1641. Courtied by the leading men, by Hampden, Pym, and others, who knew his firmness and devotion, he became well acquainted with the intrigues of the times; and when the parliament resolved, in 1642, to levy war, he went to Cambridge, and raised a troop of horse. His severity to the loyal members of the university, who contributed their plate to the service of the king, was highly disgraceful; but he showed such activity, that in a few months he acquired the character of a good officer, and his soldiers were the best disciplined troops in the kingdom. Now become a lieutenant-general, he distinguished himself at the battle of Marston-Moor, 1644, where his cavalry, called 'Ironsides,'

insured victory wherever they appeared. At the second battle of Newbury, his valour and services were regarded as so extraordinary, that he was called 'the saviour of the nation;' and in the self-denying ordinance for the exclusion of officers from seats in the commons, Cromwell alone was exempted. The fatal battle of Naseby, 1646, established his triumph; and the issue has been recorded in the reign of his victim. The character of Cromwell is best estimated by his actions; and it may justly be said of him, that he was fitted for dominion, had he been entitled to rule. As it was, he exalted the English name by his vigour and capacity in the opinion of all Europe. The promptitude and decision of his conduct exhibited that energetic self-reliance, which is uniformly one of the primary elements of exalted capability. His private life also was moral and correct: he was a good husband, and a kind parent. On the other hand, his leading share in the death of Charles, his cruelty on the field of battle, and his hypocritical adoption of such religious tenets as would best secure his usurped power, are stains upon his name, which no chance benefit to the nation, resulting from his political sagacity, ever can wipe out.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—For four years after the execution of Charles, England was ruled nominally by the Long Parliament. During this curious democracy, Cromwell was engaged with the army in subduing Ireland, which still adhered to monarchy; and with the title of lord lieutenant, he commenced a most sanguinary attack upon the enemies of republicanism. At Drogheda alone he put, in cold blood, nearly 2500 persons of the garrison to the sword. Wexford ran with the blood of defenceless men, women, and children, whom his relentless soldiers had butchered in the streets; and in any town, where the slightest resistance had been made to the parliamentary demands, the chief people were seized, and either cut down with the sword, or shot. Having thus paralyzed rather than subdued the Irish, he left Ireton deputy, and hastened to attack the young king Charles in Scotland; Fairfax having declined, on the ground of presbyterian scruples, to lead an army thither. Cromwell accordingly, with 22,000 chosen men, marched northward, and gained the battle of Dunbar, 1650; the castle of Edinburgh surrendered to him, and various other successes immediately followed. But in the mean time Charles took the bold resolution of trying his fortune in England, and had reached Worcester before Cromwell came up with him, September, 1651. There the latter gained what he was fond to call his 'crowning victory,' attended with nearly the entire destruction of the royal army, which was much inferior in numbers to his own. The conqueror hereupon returned triumphantly to London, where he was met by the parliament, the council of state, and the magistracy in procession; and the sum of 4000*l.* per annum was settled on him out of the forfeited estates. He was now so great, that he could aspire to power without competition; and aware that the parliament had become odious to the nation at large, he began to talk about an establishment. He made little secret of his views, until at length, on April 20, 1653, he entered the House of Commons with his soldiers, pulled the speaker from his chair, bade his men take away 'that bauble the mace,' and then locked up the doors. Thus characteristically terminated the famous Long Parliament; and with equal ease he dissolved the council of state. Desiring, however, a more specious source of authority, he summoned another parliament, of 142 persons, by warrants under his own hand, which body was nicknamed (from one of its puritanic members, a leather-seller) 'Barebone's Parliament.' This ignorant crew were soon after involved in so much perplexity, that the greater part of them resigned, and Cromwell cavalierly dismissed the rest. The council of officers then again assumed supreme authority, and drew up an instrument of government, which placed the admi-

nistration in Cromwell and a select council; conferring on the former the office of 'Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland.'

At the age of 54, Cromwell was invested with the high dignity he had obtained by so many crimes, December 16th, 1653, in Westminster Hall. He applied himself with vigour to the management of public affairs; conciliated Holland, Denmark, Portugal, and Sweden; and displayed a constant wish to render the French nation favourable to the English interests. With Spain he made war, and obtained, as the only result, the island of Jamaica; if we except his unjustifiable measure of seizing 400,000*l.* of Spanish property before the declaration of hostilities. Meanwhile admiral Blake, in the Mediterranean, considerably advanced the Protector's government in the estimation of foreigners, declaring that he contended, not for Cromwell, but for his country; which, with or without a king, required that her friends should fight her battles. Finding a parliament necessary, after all, to sanction his raising money and other acts of power, he summoned one according to a very enlarged plan; and it is a singular proof of the spirit of the country, that he almost immediately found himself in danger of being deposed by it, and in five months was obliged to dissolve it. In 1655 an insurrection broke out in the West of England among the royalists, of which by his spies and emissaries Cromwell was duly informed; and he just allowed it to get to a point that enabled him to stifle it in the blood of its principal contrivers. He next made a treaty with France, whereby the exiled royal family were obliged to quit that country; and the delivery of Dunkirk to England, when taken from Spain by the combined forces of France and England, was also deemed a very honourable event in the Protector's reign. But his domestic government was little more than a military despotism, as is evident from the issue of an ordinance to levy a fine of the tenth of the income of all who had borne arms for the king; as also the appointment of military districts, under the command of majors-general, who might confine all suspected persons at pleasure. Yet, with all this power, a parliament was still deemed necessary; and one was accordingly assembled in 1656, from which 200 members being excluded by the nature of the required oaths, the remainder passed money-bills at their master's pleasure. A further piece of complaisance was, however, expected from them. In a project for a settlement of the government, brought forward under the title of 'The Humble Petition and Advice,' a blank was left for the designation of the supreme governor, which Cromwell was anxious to have filled up with the word *king*. The obsequious parliament, after due deliberation, found that there was nothing offensive in this word; but Cromwell, perceiving that it did not go down with some of his best friends and supporters, was content to continue the title of Protector, and he was reinaugurated with all the pomp of a coronation, on the 26th June, 1656. He then attempted to frame a new House of Lords; but the ancient nobility always forbore to appear in it. In the same year appeared a pamphlet entitled 'Killing no Murder,' in which the author, colonel Titus, boldly argued in favour of tyrannicide. This book so alarmed the Protector, in the midst of all this semblance of lawful authority, that he grew obviously melancholy, and never went abroad afterwards without loaded pistols, and armour beneath his apparel. New conspiracies were also detected, and several cavaliers suffered; among whom was Dr. Hewitt, a clergyman, whose life even the entreaties of the Protector's favourite daughter, Mrs. Claypole, could not save; and that lady dying soon after, and upbraiding her father in her last moments, his peace of mind became seriously affected. At length, tormented with cares and anxieties of every kind, his robust constitution gave way; and he was seized with a slow fever, which terminated in an intermittent, and so weakened him, that his physician began to despair. Buoyed up by a remnant of the enthusiasm

which formed so strange an elemental portion of his character, he himself however seemed certain of recovery ; and his fanatical chaplains asserted that they had received positive assurances from Heaven to that effect. They were, notwithstanding, completely mistaken ; for he grew visibly worse, and in the month of August, 1658, fell into a state of lethargy. He died September 3 of that year, aged 59, after holding sovereign power nearly five years ; his last days forming thus a memorable contrast to those of him whose death he had compassed. Cromwell went to his grave with all the horrors of a condemned culprit ; while Charles quitted life without fear, firm in his panoply of innocence, and in the conscientious conviction that his intentions, however misinterpreted, had been constantly pure.

With great pomp the Protector's body was carried from his residence (Somerset House) and interred in the chapel of Henry VII. at Westminster ; but after the Restoration it was exhumed, and hung on the gallows. His son Richard, a mild and unambitious youth, though proclaimed Protector instantly after his father's death, resigned his office willingly in seven months, a proceeding which occasioned more sneers than admiration amongst the republican party ; and the public-house sign of 'Tumble-down Dick' still records, in many parts of London, the vulgar ridicule of the event. The republican officers then attempted to govern by the Rump Parliament, which had been so abruptly dissolved by Cromwell. General Lambert, however, again put it down, and established a military form of rule ; the three principals being himself, Fleetwood, who had married a daughter of Cromwell, and Monk, governor of Scotland. This triumvirate being soon at variance, Monk entered into correspondence with the exiled monarch, and marched from Scotland towards the south with a large force. Lambert set forward to oppose him, but was deserted by his soldiers, and arrested by the surviving members of that House of Commons which had been expelled in 1648, and which Monk instantly reassembled. In April, 1660, the parliament agreed to recal the king ; the proposal was received by the nation with the greatest joy ; the peers once more met ; and Charles, entering London May 29, 1660, was received everywhere with demonstrations of loyalty and good will.

EVENTS.

ESCAPE OF CHARLES II.—King Charles, after his defeat by Cromwell at Worcester, September 3, 1651, rode off towards Staffordshire with the duke of Buckingham, Lauderdale, Derby, Wilmot, and other staunch adherents ; and on arriving at the house called White Ladies, the family belonging to which was absent, he was advised by Mr. Giffard, a catholic, to put on a country fellow's habit, and otherwise disguise himself, and then proceed with the brother of one of his men-servants alone, that so he might reach the coast unobserved. Lord Wilmot, therefore, rode towards London, and the rest of the king's friends towards Scotland, leaving Charles in the care of the man Richard Penderell ; who cut off the king's hair, and put on him

a leathern doublet, and green jerkin, and remained with him all day in a thick wood on his master's estate at Boscobel, not far from White Ladies. The first night was passed in Boscobel house ; on the second, the king, accompanied by Richard Penderell, began his journey on foot to the Severn, 'So that night, as soon as it was dark,' says the king in the narrative written down from his dictation by Mr. Pepys, 'Penderell and I took our journey on foot towards the Severn, intending to pass over at a ferry half way between Shrewsbury and Bridgenorth. But as we were going in the night, we came by a mill, where I heard some people talking, and, as we conceived, it was about twelve or one o'clock : Penderell desired me not to answer if anybody

should ask me any questions, because I had not got the accent of the country. Just as we came to the mill, we could see the miller sitting at the mill door in white clothes (as I believe, it being a very dark night). He called out 'Who goes there?' upon which Penderell answered, 'Neighbours going home,' or such like words. Whereupon the miller cried out, 'If you be neighbours, stand, or else I will knock you down.' Upon which, we, believing there was company in the house, ran to a gate, the miller crying out 'Rogues! rogues!' and thereupon some men came out of the mill after us, who appeared to be soldiers. So we fell a-running both of us up the lane, as long as we could run, it being very deep and dirty; till at last I bid him leap over a hedge, and lie still, to hear if anybody followed us. This we both did, and continued lying down on the ground about half an hour; when hearing nobody come, we continued our way to the village upon the Severn, where the fellow told me there was an honest gentleman, one Mr. Wolfe, lived, at whose house I might be in great safety, for that he had hiding-holes for priests.' Charles had no sooner reached Mr. Wolfe's, than he was persuaded by that person to return to Boscobel, and there lie concealed until the parliament soldiers had quitted the neighbourhood of his house. The king passed the day (at Mr. Wolfe's) in a barn, and at night, with his faithful attendant, retraced his steps to Boscobel. 'So we set out' (continues the king) 'as soon as it was dark; but as we came by the mill again, we had no mind to be questioned a second time; and so, asking Penderell if he could swim or not, and how deep the river was, he said it was a very scurvy river, not easy to be passed in all places, and that he could not swim. I told him that, as the river was but a little one, I would undertake to help him over; and going over some closes to the river-side, entered the water myself first, to see whether I could

cross it, not knowing how to swim. I found it was but a little above my middle; and thereupon taking Penderell by the hand, I pulled him through.' They regained Boscobel, and found William Penderell returned from conducting lord Wilmot to the house of a catholic gentleman near Wolverhampton, named Whitegreave, who had volunteered to hide any of the royal party.

William then told the king that one of his own officers, major Carlis (also a catholic), was in Boscobel-house, and desirous of aiding him; whereupon Charles desired to see him, and was advised by him not to remain in-doors, as the soldiers of Cromwell were near, and would probably search the house. 'He then told me,' continues the king, 'he knew but one way how to pass the day following: and that was to get up into a great oak in a pretty thick place in Boscobel-wood, where we might see round about us; for the enemy would certainly search all the wood for people who had made their escape. Of which proposition I approving, we (that is to say Carlis and I) went out of the house, taking with us some victuals for the whole day,—viz. bread, cheese, small-beer, and nothing else, and got up into the great oak in question, which had been lopped some three or four years before, and being grown again very bushy, could not be seen through. While in the tree, we saw soldiers going up and down the wood, searching.' At night they descended, and hurried off, as agreed upon, to Mr. Whitegreave's, seven miles from Boscobel; where the king was agreeably surprised to see lord Wilmot again. Him he despatched immediately to a colonel Lane's, six miles from Mr. Whitegreave's, and was not a little pleased to find, on his return, that the colonel's sister had agreed to go on horseback to Bristol, on pretence of visiting a cousin; and that she would allow the king to follow her as her servant. 'So,' says the king, 'the next morning I went away to colonel

Lane's, where I changed my clothes into a little better habit, like a serving-man, being a kind of grey cloth suit; and Mrs. Lane and I commenced our journey towards Bristol, resolving to lie at a place called Long Marson, in the vale of Evesham. But we had not gone two hours on our way, before the mare I rode on cast a shoe; so we were forced to ride on to a scattering village, whose name begins with something like Long; and as I was holding my horse's foot, I asked the smith what news? He told me there was no news, since that good news of the beating of those rogues the Scots. I asked him if there were none of the English taken, that joined the Scots? He answered, that he did not hear if that *rogue Charles Stuart* was taken, but some of the others were taken—but not Charles Stuart. I told him if that *rogue* was taken, he deserved to be hanged more than all the rest; upon which he said I spoke like an honest man; and so we parted.

Mrs. Lane's sister and her husband accompanied the pair as far as Stratford, but there left them: the first night they slept at Long Marson, and the next at Cirencester; on the third day they reached Mrs. Lane's cousin's, Mr. Norton's, beyond Bristol. 'Here, as soon as ever I came,' continues the king, 'Mrs. Lane called the butler of the house, a very honest fellow, whose name was Pope, and who had served Tom Germage, a groom of my bedchamber, when I was a boy at Richmond, and bade him take care of *William Jackson*, as having been lately sick of an ague, whereof she said I was still weak. And the truth was, my late fatigue and want of sustenance had made me a little pale. Pope had also been a trooper in my father's army; but I was not to be known in the house for any thing but Mrs. Lane's servant. Pope took great care of me that night, I not eating, as I should have done, with the servants, on account of my not being well. The next morning I rose pretty early, having a

very good stomach, and went to the buttery-hatch to get my breakfast; where I found Pope and two or three more men; and we all fell to eating bread and butter, to which he gave us very good ale and sack.' One of the party having been at the battle of Worcester, and on the king's side, Charles, when he found this out, hurried from the buttery-hatch, a movement which evidently excited the suspicion of Pope; for the king having retired to his bedchamber, Mr. Lascelles, a gentleman who had joined Mrs. Lane's riding-party, came to him and said, 'I am afraid Pope knows you; for he says very positively that you are the king; but I have denied it.' Charles hereupon sent for the butler, and confessed he was right, and Pope instantly proposed going to meet lord Wilmot (who had been appointed to join the king at Mr. Norton's), in order to prevent his arrival until dark; as many of Cromwell's party were in the village. When Wilmot was brought in at nightfall, he suggested that it would be to Charles's advantage to remove from his present neighbourhood; and he accordingly induced Mrs. Lane to proceed in the same manner as before to Trent, where a Mr. Wyndham was ready to further the king's designs.

Mr. Wyndham, on the king's arrival, agreed with a merchant at Lyme to have a ship in readiness to cross to France; and to Lyme accordingly Charles rode on one and the same horse with Mrs. Judith Connesby, a cousin of Mr. Wyndham's, the king riding foremost. The ship not being found when the party came to Lyme, they rode on to Bridport, where they were startled by the entry of 1500 of Cromwell's soldiers, who were about to embark for Jersey. Charles, however, thought it best to go boldly to an inn, and mix with the servants. 'So we rode directly,' says the king, 'into the best inn in the place, and found the yard very full of soldiers. I alighted, and taking the horses, thought it the best

way to go blundering in among them to the stable, by which rudeness I made some of them very angry. As soon as I came into the stable, I took the brides off the horses, and called the ostler to help me feed them. As he was assisting me, "Zure," says the fellow, "I knows your vace!" a question not very pleasant; but I thought it best to ask him where he had lived before; and when he said at Exeter, hard by Mr. Potter's house, where I had slept all the time of the war, I said to him, "Friend, you have seen me at Mr. Potter's—for I served him a good while."—"Ay!" says he, "I remembers ye a boy ther;" and with that he desired we might drink a pot of beer together, which I excused, by saying I must go and wait upon my master, and get his dinner ready.' Soon finding from lord Wilmot, who arrived in disguise from Lyme, that the merchant was unwilling to provide the vessel, Charles forthwith returned to Trent. Colonel Philips then procured a ship at Southampton, but unfortunately it was pressed to transport the soldiers to Jersey; and the colonel offered to take the king to a Mrs. Hyde's, at Heale, near Salisbury, who for several days concealed him in the recesses of her house, which had been purposely constructed for catholic recusants. After four or five days' stay here, colonel Gunter having provided a ship at Shoreham, the royal party started early one morning for that place. 'So,' says the king, 'when we came to a place called Bright-helmstone, we met the master of the ship, in company with the merchant whom colonel Gunter had got to hire the vessel for me, the merchant only knowing me as a person who had escaped from the battle of Worcester. And as we were all together, I observed that the master looked very much at me; and as soon as we had supped, he called the merchant aside, telling him that he had not dealt fairly with him: for though he had given a very fair price for carrying over that gentleman, yet he had not

been clear with him; for, says he, he is the king, and I very well know him to be so. He took my ship in 1648 (which was when I commanded my father's fleet; and I very kindly gave that and others liberty again); but I will venture my life and all for him, and set him safely ashore in France. We sat up all that night at the inn, drinking beer and smoking tobacco; and here, as I was standing after supper by the fire-side, leaning my hand upon the back of a chair, all the rest being gone into another room, the master of the inn came in, and fell a-talking with me. Upon a sudden, he kissed my hand that was upon the chair, and said to me, 'God bless your majesty, wheresoever you go: I don't doubt before I die to be a lord, and my wife a lady!' So I laughed, and went away into the next room, not desiring then any further discourse; however, I thought it best to trust him with my secret, and he proved honest.' At four in the morning the party proceeded to Shoreham; and Charles, with a haste natural to his situation, got on board the vessel which waited for him, and laid himself on his hammock to sleep. 'But I was no sooner laid down,' says the king, 'than the master came to me, fell down upon his knees, and kissed my hands, telling me he knew me very well, and would venture his life to set me down safe in France.' As the ship was bound for Poole to carry sea-coal, the captain persuaded Charles to request him, in the presence of his crew, to land him and his friend Wilmot in France, as two merchants wishing to escape their creditors; this was accordingly done, and the fugitive monarch was landed at Feschamps, without a discovery by the owners that the vessel had gone out of her course. The king soon reached Rouen, whence he departed for Paris, his mother, queen Henrietta, meeting him on the way.

It is singular that the principal persons who assisted in this escape

were Roman catholics, Mr. Giffard, Carlis, the Penderells, the Lanes, Gunter, and the captain of the ship (Tettersell), not omitting Pope; a circumstance which considerably tended to rivet the affections of Charles to his subjects of that faith. That their fidelity was disinterested is evident, when it is remembered that very large sums of money were offered by the parliament to such as would deliver up the king alive or dead. Boscobel-house still exists, and is, we believe, in the possession of Mrs. Evans. The end and back part of the building are nearly in their original state, though the interior and the grounds have been much altered; but whatever could be traced relative to the king's concealment, has been preserved with care. The places in which he was hidden are chiefly in and adjoining a large chimney: the garret, or, as it is termed, the gallery, entered by a trap-door, was probably one of them. From this there is a descent by a step-ladder to the next hiding-place, and thence to a door near the bottom of the chimney, that leads to the garden. The large wainscoted parlour is nearly in its original form. The concealing-place behind the wainscot has long been stopped up; and the gloves and garters, said to have been left there by the king, were lost before the present possessor came to the house. The Royal Oak, said to have sprung from an acorn of the original oak that sheltered the king, stands near the middle of a large field adjoining the garden.

THE WOODSTOCK GHOST.—One of the best stories of a haunted house is that of the royal palace of Woodstock, 1649, when the commissioners sent from London by the Long Parliament, to take possession of it, and efface all the emblems of royalty about it, were fairly driven out by their fear of spirits, and the annoyances they suffered from a roguish cavalier, who played the imp to admiration. The commissioners, dreading at that time nothing, arrived at Wood-

stock on Oct. 18th. They took up their lodging in the late king's apartments—turned the beautiful bedrooms and drawing-rooms into kitchens and sculleries—the council-hall into a brewhouse—and made the dining-room a place to keep firewood in. They pulled down all the insignia of royal state, and treated with the utmost indignity everything that recalled to memory the name or majesty of Charles Stuart. One Giles Sharp accompanied them in the capacity of clerk, and seconded their efforts apparently with the greatest zeal. He aided them to uproot a noble old tree, merely because it was called the King's Oak, and tossed the fragments into the dining-room, to make cheerful fires for the commissioners. During the first two days they heard some strange noises about the house, but paid no great attention to them. On the third, however, they began to suspect they had got into bad company; for they heard, as they thought, a supernatural dog under their beds, which gnawed their bedclothes. On the next day, the chairs and tables began to dance, apparently of their own accord. On the fifth, something came into their bedroom (for they all slept in one apartment), walked up and down, and fetching the warming-pan out of the drawing-room, made so much noise with it, that they thought five church bells were ringing in their ears. On the sixth day, the plates and dishes were thrown up and down the dining-room: on the seventh the same missiles penetrated into the bedroom, in company with several logs of wood, and usurped the soft pillows intended for the commissioners. On the eighth and ninth nights there was a cessation of hostilities; but on the 10th, the bricks in the chimneys became locomotive, and rattled and danced about the floors, and round the heads of the commissioners, all night long. On the 11th, the demon ran away with their breeches, and on the 12th filled their beds so full of pewter-platters

that they could not get into them. On the 13th night, the glass became unaccountably seized with a fit of cracking, and fell into shivers in all parts of the house. On the 14th, there was a noise as if forty pieces of artillery had been fired off, and a shower of pebble-stones, which so alarmed the commissioners that, 'struck with great horror, they cried out to one another for help.' They first of all tried the efficacy of prayers to drive away the supposed evil spirits; but these proving unavailing, they began seriously to reflect whether it would not be much better to leave the place altogether to the devils that inhabited it. They ultimately resolved, however, to try it a little longer; and having craved forgiveness of all their sins, betook themselves to bed. That night they slept in tolerable comfort; but it was merely a trick of their tormentor to lull them into false security. When on the succeeding night they heard no noises, they began to flatter themselves that the evil one was driven out, and prepared accordingly to take up their quarters for the whole winter in the palace. These symptoms on their part became the signal for renewed uproar among the fiends. On the 1st of November, they heard something walking with a slow and solemn pace up and down the drawing-room; and immediately after, a shower of stones, bricks, mortar, and broken glass pelted about their ears. On the 2nd the steps were again heard in the drawing-room, sounding to their fancy very much like the treading of an enormous bear; and this noise having ceased, a large warming-pan was thrown violently upon the table, followed by a number of stones, and the jawbone of a horse. Some of the boldest walked valiantly into the drawing-room, armed with swords and pistols, but could discover no one. They were afraid that night to go to sleep, and sat up, making fires in every room, and burning candles and lamps in great abundance; thinking that, as the fiends

loved darkness, they would not disturb a company surrounded with so much light. They were deceived, however: buckets of water came down the chimneys and extinguished the fires, and the candles were blown out they knew not how. Some of the servants, who had betaken themselves to bed, were drenched with putrid ditch-water as they lay, and arose in great fright, muttering incoherent prayers, and exposing to the wondering eyes of the commissioners their linen, all dripping with green moisture, and their knuckles red with the blows they had at the same time received from their invisible tormentors. While they were still speaking, there was a noise 'like the loudest thunder, or the firing of a whole park of artillery;' upon which they all fell down on their knees, and implored the protection of heaven. One of the commissioners then arose—the others still kneeling—and asked, in a courageous voice, and in the name of God, who was there, and what they had done that they should be troubled in that manner? No answer was returned, and the noise ceased for awhile. At length, however, as the commissioners said, 'the devil came again, and brought with it seven devils worse than itself.' Being again in darkness, they lighted a candle, and placed it in the doorway, that it might throw a light upon the two chambers at once; but it was suddenly blown out, and one of the commissioners said that he had seen the similitude of a horse's hoof striking the candle and candlestick into the middle of the chamber, and afterwards, making three scrapes on the snuff, put it out.' Upon this, the same person was so bold as to draw his sword; but he asserted positively, that he had hardly got it from the scabbard, before an invisible hand seized hold of it, and tugged with him for it, and prevailing, struck him so violent a blow with the pommel, that he was quite stunned. Then the noises began again; upon which, with one accord,

they all retired into the presence-chamber, where they passed the night praying and singing psalms. They were by this time convinced that it was useless to struggle any longer with the powers of evil, that seemed determined to make Woodstock their own. These things happened on a Saturday night; and what occurred on the next day, Sunday, determined the commissioners to leave the place immediately, and return to London. The party had not, in their zeal for the public service, overlooked their own private interests; and a deed was drawn up upon parchment, recording the share and nature of the advantages which they had privately agreed to concede to each other. But as they were loath to intrust to any one of their number the keeping of a document in which all were equally concerned, they hid the same within a flower-pot, in which a shrub concealed it from the eyes of any chance spectator. While the commissioners were, on the Sunday, closeted with some guests in the saloon where the flower-pot was placed, a fume was observed to rise from the vessel, as if from the root of the shrub, which soon gave forth so terrible and stifling an effluvium, that the whole party (the commissioners leading the way) began rushing to escape at the door; but before they could all effect their exit, the pot exploded, and the contract, bearing testimony to the private roguery of the commissioners, was thrown into the midst of their affrighted visitors. By Tuesday morning early, therefore, the preparations for returning to London were completed; when the commissioners, shaking off the dust from their feet, devoted Woodstock and all its inhabitants to the infernal gods, and took their departure. Many years elapsed before the true cause of these disturbances was discovered. It was ascertained, at the Restoration, that the whole was the work of Giles Sharp, the trusty clerk of the commissioners. This man, whose real

name was Joseph Collins, was a concealed royalist, and had passed his early life within the bowers of Woodstock; so that he knew every hole and corner of the place, and the numerous trap-doors, and secret passages that abounded in the building. The commissioners, never suspecting the true state of his opinions, but believing him to be revolutionary to the back-bone, placed the utmost reliance upon him; a confidence which he abused, in the manner above detailed, to his own amusement, and that of the few cavaliers whom he had let into the secret.

THE MUGGLETONIANS, a religious sect, arose in England 1657, being so denominated from their leader, Muggleton, a journeyman tailor, who, with his associate Reeves, set up for prophets. They asserted that they were the two last witnesses of God that should appear before the end of the world, and claimed the power of saving and condemning whom they pleased.

PERSECUTIONS FOR IMPUTED WITCHCRAFT.—A firm belief existed in this reign, throughout Scotland more especially, that witchcraft was a substantial crime; and multitudes of accused persons were burned by order of the magistrates. In a village near Berwick, fourteen were so destroyed; and it even became the study of men of science to distinguish by proper symptoms a true witch from a pretended one. The floating of such as passed the water-ordeal was taken as a sure proof of guilt; and other equally absurd tests were regarded as unerring guides to the witchfinder. One Hopkins caused, by his informations, upwards of eighty poor creatures to be hanged in Suffolk, 1650.

RISE OF THE QUAKERS, 1651.—Out of the divisions in the Christian church arose the quakers, a sect who reject the outward ceremonies of religion as useless; equalize all ranks and orders of men; dress with great simplicity; never take oaths before magistrates, considering them as swearing, and disallowed; and use

the pronouns *thou* and *thee* for *you*. George Fox, who had been bred a shoemaker and tender of sheep, was the founder of the sect; and in his zeal to spread his doctrines, he visited Holland, Germany, America, and the West Indies, preaching everywhere. His followers derive their name from the shaking and contortions of body which at first accompanied their religious communings.

THE FIFTH MONARCHY MEN.—These were a party of turbulent enthusiasts who arose in the time of Cromwell, and affected to expect Christ's sudden appearance upon earth to establish the fifth universal kingdom of the world, which was to endure a thousand years. Hence their name of Millenarians. Acting under this illusion or pretext, they aimed at the subversion of all human government, and were not put down without bloodshed, 1660 and 1662. The four universal monarchies were the Assyrian or Chaldean, the Persian, the Grecian, and the Roman.

ST. HELENA AND ASCENSION OCCUPIED BY THE ENGLISH, 1651.—The rocky island of St. Helena was discovered on St. Helena's day (May 3rd) 1502, by Juan de Castella, a Portuguese, who found the place uninhabited, covered by one entire forest, and its shores abounding with turtle, seals, sea-lions, and various sorts of wild-fowl. Its settlement in 1513 is attributed to Fernandez Lopez, a Portuguese noble, who being ordered home to Portugal from India by Albuquerque for some offence, prevailed on the captain to land him at St. Helena; and his wishes being complied with, and abundant supplies forwarded to him by his friends, he quickly brought some spots under cultivation, and imported hogs, goats, domestic poultry, partridges, and wild fowl, the fig, orange, lemon, and peach trees, all of which rapidly thrived. The first Englishman who noticed St. Helena, was captain Cavendish, in 1588; and it was afterwards frequently visited by English, Dutch, Spanish, and Portuguese

ships, the salubrity of the air and the abundance of fresh provisions invigorating the exhausted crews. In 1600 some English colonised the part about the modern James Town, and held it till 1620. There are accounts of various sea-fights between the Dutch and Spaniards at the anchorage at that period; and the combatants are accused of wantonly destroying the English plantations, lest succeeding visitors should profit by the supplies which had proved so beneficial to themselves. On a like account the island was at length devastated by the Portuguese 1620, and continued desolate till 1643: when two Portuguese vessels being wrecked there, their crews got safe to land, and once more stocked it with cattle, &c. In 1645 the Dutch established a colony there; but they abandoning it on settling at the Cape of Good Hope, 1651, the homeward-bound English East India fleet took possession of it, and the India Company thereupon obtained a charter for its possession from Charles II. Captain Dalton, the first English governor, 1658, erected a fort, which he called Fort James, in compliment to the duke of York; and slaves were imported from Madagascar to work in the plantations. In 1672 the Dutch, through the treachery of a planter, succeeded in landing in the night 500 men, from an expedition which had been repulsed on the previous day. The fort being thus attacked in the rear, the governor retired with his garrison on board some ships in the roads, and sailed homewards, leaving a sloop to cruise to windward, to warn British vessels of what had occurred; and a squadron arriving in May 1673, under captain Munden, the latter succeeded in recapturing the island. By keeping the Dutch flag flying after he had got possession of the fort, Munden decoyed six Dutch East Indiamen, and a ship having a new Dutch governor and garrison on board, into the roads, and made them prisoners. St. Helena remained in possession of the

English East India Company until the last renewal of their charter in 1833, when it was given up to the crown, as being no longer needed by them after the abolition of their commercial privileges. The governors of St. Helena have been : 1655, Capt. Dutton ; 1660, Capt. Stringer ; 1673, Sir Richard Munden and Capt. Kegwin ; 1674, Capt. G. Field ; 1678, Major J. Blackmore ; 1690, Capt. J. Johnson ; 1693, Capt. R. Keelinge ; 1697, Capt. S. Poirier ; 1707, Capt. T. Goodwin ; 1708, Capt. J. Roberts ; 1711, Capt. B. Boucher ; 1714, Capt. M. Bazett, and Capt. J. Pyke ; 1719, E. Johnson ; 1723, E. Byfield, and Capt. J. Smith ; 1731, Capt. J. Pyke ; 1738, J. Goodwin ; 1739, D. Crisp ; 1740, R. Jenkins ; 1741, Maj. T. Lambert ; 1742, G. G. Powel ; 1743, Col. D. Dunbar ; 1747, C. Hutchinson ; 1764, J. Skottowe ; 1782, D. Corneille ; 1787, Col. R. Brooke ; 1801, Col. F. Robson ; 1802, Col. R. Patten ; 1807, Col. W. Lane ; 1808, Gen. A. Beatson ; 1813, Col. M. Wilks ; 1816, Gen. Sir Hudson Lowe ; 1821, T. H. Brooke ; 1823, Gen. A. Walker ; 1828, T. H. Brooke ; 1828, Gen. C. Dallas ; Gen. Middleton. ASCENSION, more rocky than St. Helena, is a volcanic production, and under the same rule. It has been well fortified at every accessible part. During war, these islands, in the possession of an enemy, would, as outlying picquets, be a means of serious injury to our commerce : during peace, they are refreshing stations, enabling our seamen to have at all times a friendly haven under their lee.

HONDURAS MADE A BRITISH SETTLEMENT, 1650.—This coast of Yucutan in South America was discovered by Columbus 1502, long after which it was merely visited by mahogany and other wood cutters, whose chief place of residence was then a small island called St. George's Key, near Balize, the present capital of the settlement. The first regular establishment of British logwood-cutters was made at Cape Cartoche

by some Jamaica adventurers, 1650 ; whose numbers so increased, that in a short time they occupied as far south as the river Balize in the Bay of Honduras, and as far west as the island of Triste. The jealousy of the neighbouring Spaniards was soon roused, and the governor of Campeachy fitted out several unsuccessful expeditions against the logwood-cutters ; but through the carelessness of the ministry of Charles II., the English were at length driven from the Campeachy shore (which they had seized, together with Campeachy itself), and in 1680 were confined within the precise limits they now occupy. From 1718 to 1784 the hostility between Spaniards and English was perpetually displayed ; but in the latter year a commission from the crown of Spain authorized a formal delivery to the British of the lands allotted for the cutting of logwood. During the war of 1798, the last Spanish attack on the settlement was made, and consisted of an expedition of 3000 men under field-marshal O'Neil, who was gallantly repulsed by the ' Bay Men,' as the Honduras settlers are termed ; and this act is considered a perfectly good title of occupancy. Honduras is governed by a superintendent, nominated by the crown ; and there is a mixed legislative and executive power of seven persons, termed ' the magistrates of Honduras,' annually elected, whose enactments, on receiving the assent of the superintendent, become laws. The superintendent is commander of the fine militia of Honduras, 1000 strong ; and there is also a local maritime force. The staple commodities are mahogany and logwood ; but pinewood (a tree so full of tar and turpentine that the wood sinks in water), the cahoun-tree, abundant in a pure oil, fit for burning and possessing a grateful flavour, and many delicate woods, are everywhere found—besides the caoutchouc, rosewood, ironwood, and other natural productions, which a more extended population will turn to good account.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE COLONIZED, first, 1652 by the Dutch, who reduced the native Hottentots, and extended the territory nearly to its present limit. This lofty promontory was first discovered by Diaz 1487, and called by him Cabo dos Tormentos, in consequence of the tempestuous weather he experienced. The mutinous state of his crews, and the shattered condition of his ships prevented Diaz from touching at the Cape; and on his return to Portugal, John II. directed the promontory to be called Cabo da bon Esperança (Cape of Good Hope), in expectation of future beneficial results. In the hope of discovering the long-desired passage to India, another fleet was fitted out by John, and the command given to Vasco de Gama; who, after contending with the fury of the elements, and the mutinous conduct of his companions, doubled the Cape, 1497. The spot continued to be resorted to as a watering-place by European mariners for more than a century; and despatches for the directors of the Dutch and English East India companies were buried by the commanders of the outward-bound ships, with instructions cut on stone or wood, indicating where they were to be found by the homeward-bound vessels. In 1620, Captains Fitzherbert and Shillinge took possession of the Cape in the name of James I.; but as no settlement was formed, the Dutch, in 1652, sent out thither, as colonists, 100 males and as many females from the houses of industry in Amsterdam. From this period until 1795, the Cape remained in the possession of Holland, when the English took possession of it for the prince of Orange; and it remained in our occupation until the peace of Amiens 1802, when it was most injudiciously restored to the Dutch nominally, but in reality to the French, who made use of the Hollanders as stited their convenience. On the renewal of the war with France, however, a well appointed force of 5000 men, under Sir David Baird and Sir Home

Popham, recovered possession for the British crown, 1806; and the colony has ever since remained in our hands. The English governors have been—1795, J. H. Craig; 1797, Earl Macartney; 1798, Sir Francis Dundas; 1798, Sir George Yonge; 1801, Sir Francis Dundas; 1803, William Jassens; 1806, Sir David Baird; 1807, Hon. H. Grey; 1807, Earl of Caledon; 1811, Hon. H. Grey; 1811, Sir John F. Cradock; 1813, Hon. R. Meade; 1814, Lord Charles Somerset; 1820, Sir Rufane Donkin; 1821, Lord Charles Somerset; 1828, Richard Bourke; 1828, Sir Galbraith Lowry Cole; 1833, Sir B. D'Urban; 1837, General Napier. The territory is about 550 miles long and 233 broad, comprising an area of 128,150 square miles; and the salubrity of its climate is proverbial, inasmuch that the English of Hindustan resort thither constantly for the recovery of their health. In this colony, as in the south of Europe, and most of the warm climates of a temperate zone, the wind commonly blows cold in summer, at the same time that the sun shines powerfully. It is this circumstance which distinguishes a warm from a hot climate. The Caffres, or origines, amount at present to about 225,000; the settlers, Dutch and English, to 150,000. The affairs of the colony are administered by a governor (salary 6,000*l.* per annum), aided by an executive and legislative council. Corn, wine, wool, provisions, oil, aloes, and fruits are the staples of this fine colony; but wine is at present of most importance, and corn probably will be so hereafter. The culture of the vine was introduced by the refugee Portuguese, after the revocation of the edict of Nantes; but it received a considerable stimulus when the influence of Napoleon extended over the greater part of the wine countries of Europe, 1811. On that occasion the British government considered it desirable to encourage the growth of the vine in our own colonies, beyond the power of foreign nations, by a formal promise of constant support

and patronage to the Cape growers. The consequence was, that in the next 11 years, the annual produce of Cape wine rose from 7,000 leaguers (of 117 gallons) to 20,000. But here comes a proof of the cruelty resulting from the mother-country's grant of privileges to her foreign allies, equal in amount to those awarded to her own offspring. In 1825, the English duties on all foreign wines were greatly reduced; and the Cape growers, who had, in the infant state of their undertaking, mainly relied on the protection afforded by their own low-rating, were immediately ruined. How happy if this warning operate to place the free-trade system in its true light! Cape wines had at first a peculiar raciness, which much injured their sale in European markets; but this was owing to the avidity of the wine-farmers, who attended more to quantity than to quality; and whenever the latter has been regarded, the wine has been equal to that prepared in any other part of the world. As respects wool, the fineness of the climate requiring no winter provender, the colony would be capable of supplying an almost indefinite quantity of the finest quality; and, with New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, England would thus be rendered totally independent of supplies from Germany and Spain, and be furnished with a much more durable and elastic material.

JAMAICA BECAME AN ENGLISH POSSESSION, 1655, by the bravery of admirals Penn and Venables, who took it from the Spaniards. The sugarcane was introduced soon after from Barbadoes; and sugar is now the staple commodity of the island. It also produces cocoa, coffee, cotton, ginger, indigo, pimento, and mahogany. It was discovered by Columbus 1494, and was then called Xaymaca, signifying in the Florida language, 'abundance of wood and water.' In 1503 the Spaniards first began to colonise it; and in 1558, the fierce aborigines having entirely perished, slaves were introduced to cultivate the ground. The Spaniards held pos-

session till 1665, when Jamaica was conquered from them by Cromwell; and it has ever since belonged to Great Britain. The rule is in a governor, aided by an executive and legislative council of 12, and a house of assembly of 45 representative members. The governors have been—1660, Col. D'Oyley; 1662, Lord Windsor; 1662, Sir C. Lyttleton; 1664, Col. Thomas Lynch; 1664, Sir T. Modyford; 1671, Sir T. Lynch; 1675, Sir H. Morgan; 1675, Lord Vaughan; 1678, Sir H. Morgan; 1678, Charles, earl of Carlisle; 1680, Sir H. Morgan; 1682, Sir Thomas Lynch; 1684, Col. Molesworth; 1687, Christopher, duke of Albemarle; 1688, Sir Francis Watson; 1690, William, earl of Inchiquin; 1692, John White; 1692, John Bourden; 1693, Sir William Beeston; 1702, William Selwyn; 1702, P. Beckford; 1702, T. Handasyde; 1711, Lord Archibald Hamilton; 1716, Peter Heywood; 1718, Sir Nicholas Lawes; 1722, Henry, duke of Portland; 1722, John Ayscough; 1728, Gen. Robert Hunter; 1734, John Ayscough; 1735, John Gregory; 1735, Henry Cunningham; 1738, Edw. Trelawney; 1752, C. Knowles; 1756, Henry Moore; 1758, George Haldane; 1759, Henry Moore; 1762, W. H. Littleton; 1766, R. H. Elletson; 1767, Sir William Trelawney; 1773, Col. J. Dalling; 1773, Sir Basil Keith; 1777, Gen. J. Dalling; 1782, Gen. Archibald Campbell; 1784, Gen. Alured Clarke; 1790, Thomas, earl of Effingham; 1791, Gen. Williamson; 1795, Earl of Balcarras; 1801, Gen. G. Nugent; 1806, Sir E. Coote; 1808, Duke of Manchester; 1811, Gen. E. Morrison; 1813, Duke of Manchester; 1821, Gen. H. Conran; 1822, Duke of Manchester; 1827, Sir Jno. Keane; 1829, Earl of Belmore; 1832, G. Cuthbert; 1832, Earl of Mulgrave; 1833, Marquis of Sligo; 1836, Sir Lionel Smith. *The Caymans*, a dependency of Jamaica, are three small isles about 40 leagues west of it, famous for the abundance of turtle. One isle only is inhabited, and has a population of 1600 souls, descendants of the English buccaneers.

The woods and marshes of Jamaica afford a variety of birds of exquisite flavour, especially the ring-tail pigeon. But the most delicious are the ortolans or rice-birds of South Carolina. These little creatures fatten upon the milky rice of that region early in the autumn; and when it begins to harden, they visit Jamaica in prodigious flights, in October, to feed on the seeds of the Guinea-grass. Among the throng of birds eminent for brilliant plumage, may be mentioned the parrot tribe, from the stout macaw to the tiny paroquet. The flamingo, an elegant and princely bird, as large as a swan, arrayed in plumage of the brightest scarlet, is no longer to be seen; but the colibri, or humming-bird, everywhere abounds. The colours that mark the coat of this

bird, not much bigger than a beetle, mock the mimicry of art; exhibiting in exquisite combination the pure green of the emerald, the rich purple of the amethyst, and the deep blaze of the ruby. Though the music of European surpasses that of tropical birds, yet the groves of hot climates, decorated by plumes so diversified and splendid, and filled by the mingled imitations of the mocking-bird, and the plaintive cooings of a vast variety of doves, added to the modulated hum of countless insects, produce no despicable concert in the ear of the true lover of nature.

BANDS first used by the English clergy 1652, in imitation of the Calvinist protestants of Geneva: hence they were long denominated 'Geneva bands.'

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER MOHAMMED IV.—This sultan was placed on the throne upon the murder of his father Ibrahim 1649, and continued the war with the Venetians, who in 1651 defeated his fleet in the Archipelago. The Germans and French gained a victory over his vizir at Raab 1664; but the Turks, on the other hand, captured Candia 1669, after a very long siege, which cost them above 100,000 men, and the Venetians 40,000. In 1672, Mohammed declared war against the Poles, and after seizing several of their towns obliged them to conclude a shameful peace; but John Sobieski, grand marshal of Poland, refused to ratify the treaty, and in spite of the great military skill of the vizir Ahmed Kuprighi, obtained a complete victory over the Turks near Choczim, 1673,—a triumph which raised Sobieski to the Polish throne. In 1682, Mohammed openly assisted the malcontents in Hungary, and Cara Mustafa, the grand vizir, laid siege to Vienna with 150,000 men; but when that city was ready to surrender, Sobieski attacked the vizir's camp 1683, and put his army to flight. In 1684, the emperor, the king of Poland, and

the Venetians united against Mohammed, and gained considerable advantages over him. Prince Charles of Lorraine, after taking Buda by assault 1686, gained the battle of Mohatz 1687; and the latter victory driving the Turks to despair, they revolted, and instantly deposed Mohammed, who expired four years after in prison, 1691.

THE POPEDOM. ALEXANDER VII. Fabio Chigi of Siena, succeeded Innocent X. 1655, to whom he had been secretary. He was a man of humble mind, and of a disposition remarkably urbane and conciliatory. After the election, he was carried, according to custom, to St. Peter's church, there to receive the homage of the cardinals at the great altar; but while they were paying it, he continued prostrate on the ground. When arrived at the Vatican, he ordered that his coffin should be made, and put under his bed; that the continual thought of death might put him in mind of leading a holy life. He was remarkable for his affability to strangers. Some English gentlemen one day mixed with those who went to pay their respects to him on their knees. The pope asked them who

they were, and whether they were not protestants, which they owned; whereupon he said, smilingly, 'Get up then, I will not suffer you to commit what, in your opinion, is an act of idolatry. I shall not give you my blessing, since you do not value it; but I will pray to God that he may please to render you willing to receive it.' He loved the belles lettres, and to talk with learned men upon poetry, history, and politics; and being fond of stately buildings, expended large sums in the embellishment of Rome. When embroiled in a dispute with the imperious Louis XIV., in consequence of some insult which had been offered by the Roman populace to the duc de Créquy, the French ambassador, he managed to conciliate the king. One of his last acts was to confirm the bull of Innocent X. against the five propositions of Jansen; and he died aged 68, 1667.

SWEDEN UNDER CHRISTINA, &c.—Christina was a child of six when her father, the great Gustavus, left her heiress of his crown, by his death at Lutzen, 1632. Young as she was, Gustavus, having no son to succeed him, had endeavoured to cultivate in her a strong and masculine disposition. Even when a mere infant, he expected that she, as the daughter of a warrior, should hear the roar of artillery without emotion. On his departure for the wars in Germany, Gustavus appointed a regency; and carrying his daughter in his arms, presented her to the assembled States of the kingdom as their future sovereign. The five great dignitaries of the crown, of whom the experienced and enlightened chancellor Oxenstiern took the lead, were the regents; and as they scrupulously pursued the king's plan, the singular character afterwards displayed by Christina may be fairly attributed thereto. Under the gravest of masters and scholars, she daily fagged at Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, history, and politics: her only allowed recreations being hunting, shooting, and review-

ing troops—on which occasions she was clad in male attire, and accompanied by men. The society of her own sex soon became insupportable to her. In 1644 she assumed the reins of government; and, much favoured by circumstances, acted a conspicuous part in the affairs of Europe. She at once finished a war with Denmark, obtaining by treaty the cession of some territory to Sweden; she pressed on the peace with Germany, against the advice of Oxenstiern and others; and finally became a party to the treaty of Westphalia, 1648, by which, in consequence of the victories of her brave troops, she obtained several millions of dollars, three votes in the diet of the Germanic empire, and the cession of Pomerania, Wismar, Bremen, and Verden. When pressed by the States to marry, she constantly and firmly refused. The assigned motives of her refusal have been preserved in several eccentric speeches, which her majesty is said to have delivered without blushing. Among those who aspired to her hand was her own cousin, Charles Gustavus, a prince of excellent qualities, and in 1649 she was induced by the States to declare him her successor; but she would not allow him any share of her real power, of which she was exceedingly jealous. Soon after this appointment, she had herself crowned with great pomp, under the title of *king*. Having now no wars to engage her attention, she gave herself up, with all the energy of her character, to arts and literature; or rather to a mania for patronising artists and men of letters. Her court was soon crowded with good and bad, the pretender with the real man of science, the sage with the buffoon. Descartes was her guest, but he died soon after his arrival at Stockholm; his weak constitution being unable to resist the rigour of the climate. Bourdelot, a gossiping and intriguing French abbé, who pretended to some knowledge of medicine, and who was retained in quality of her physician, became the great

favourite of the queen, by flattering her vanity, and ridiculing her court of philosophers and men of letters, whose jarrings were incessant. This coterie was expensive and unpopular. Christina spent enormous sums, for so poor a country as Sweden, in the purchase of books, manuscripts, statues, pictures, antiquities, and curiosities. But reverence and affection for her father's memory stifled the murmurs of the people; and when, to the astonishment of everybody, she first spoke of abdicating, she was most earnestly intreated to remain on the throne. For some short time after this, she showed a renewal of good sense and energy, and a disposition to public business. It was at this interval that Cromwell's ambassador, Whitelocke, saw a good deal of her, and that his secretary Morton picked up that curious information about her court and herself which he afterwards published in England. Her distaste for what she called 'the splendid slavery of royalty,' her desire to indulge in all her caprices in perfect liberty, and (a stronger motive perhaps than any other) her wish of presenting an extraordinary spectacle to the world, soon returning upon her, she formally signified her decided intention to renounce the crown; and on the 16th of June, 1664, her abdication took place with great solemnity, being then only in her 28th year. (*See Abdication of Christina.*) CHARLES X. (GUSTAVUS), her cousin, son of John Casimir, palatine of the Rhine, by Catherine, daughter of Charles IX. of Sweden, succeeded. He immediately engaged in a war with the Poles, and took Warsaw and Cracow; but Casimir of Poland at length, after several battles, drove him out of his dominions. Charles next made war on the Danes, over whom he obtained some advantages; and while proposing to execute the greatest designs, death put a stop to his projects, in his 38th year, 1660.

DENMARK AND NORWAY UNDER
FREDERICK III. — Frederick suc-

ceeded his father, Christiern IV., 1648, at a time when the nobles had become dangerously powerful. The wars of the last reign having brought the finances to a low condition, his first measure was a treaty with the Dutch, whose friendship he gained by seizing a fleet of English merchantmen laden with naval stores, in the harbour of Copenhagen. By this he obtained a subsidy, and an alliance with Holland, though it embroiled him with the Commonwealth of England. In 1657, at the instigation of the Dutch, he declared war against Sweden; when Charles X., its king, crossed over the ice to Zealand, laid siege to Copenhagen, and compelled him to a disadvantageous peace. The tranquillity was of short duration; Copenhagen was again besieged by sea and land, and was saved only by the arrival of a Dutch fleet. The most remarkable and important event of Frederick's reign was the conversion of the constitution, which had been limited, and in some degree elective, into an hereditary and absolute monarchy. This change was owing to the before-mentioned undue potency of the nobles, who treated the commons as their vassals, and refused to bear any part of the public burdens. The commons, therefore, in conjunction with the clergy, resolved to surrender the liberties of the nation into the hands of the sovereign; the nobles, overawed by the army, were obliged to concur; and all the rights and privileges of the Estates being solemnly relinquished to Frederick, he received the homage of the respective orders. By this bloodless revolution, Denmark was constituted, and still remains, a despotic government; and whatever we may think of the people who ventured on so hazardous an experiment, it must be owned that the Danish rulers have never abused the confidence thus reposed in them. Frederick died, aged 61, 1670.

PORTUGAL UNDER AFFONSO VI.
—He was 13 years old when his father, João IV. died, 1656; and

being weakly both in body and mind, nothing but the masculine character of his mother prevented a second subjugation of the country. By marrying her daughter Catherine to our Charles II., she procured the protection of an English fleet; and in 1665 terminated the war with Spain by the victory of Montesclaros, which insured the independence of Portugal. Affonso, from neglect of education, preferring mean society to court companions, the queen-mother laboured to place his younger brother Pedro in his room; but as she died before effecting her object, Pedro entered into cabals against the king; and, in conjunction with the queen of Affonso herself (princess of Nemours), compelled him to resign all authority into his hands. The state hereupon constituted Pedro regent, 1667; and soon after, Affonso and his faithless consort being divorced, the regent and queen were united in marriage. Affonso was first sent to the island of Terceira, where he continued several years; but he was afterwards removed to the castle of Cintra, where he died 1688.

POLAND UNDER JOHN II. (CAST-MIR), &c.—John II. was the son of Sigismund III., and having been designed for the church, became a Jesuit, and was made a cardinal by Innocent X. On the death, however, of his brother, Vladislaus VI. 1648, the Poles elected him their king; whereupon he obtained a dispensation from the pope for relinquishing the sacerdotal habit, as well as for marrying his brother's widow, Mary de Gonzague. Though he made peace with the Cossacks, who had so grievously annoyed his predecessor, the war was soon renewed; and while the kingdom was distracted between these enemies, and the discontents of its own inhabitants, the Russians took the opportunity of pillaging Lithuania. In a little while after, the whole kingdom was subdued by Charles X. of Sweden. Happily for Poland, however, a rupture

took place between the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen; by which means the Poles were enabled to drive out the Swedes, 1657. This event was succeeded by civil wars and contests with Russia, which so grievously harassed king John, that he resigned the crown, 1668. On his retirement to France, Louis XIV., with his characteristic sympathy for royalty in distress, gave him both a kind reception, and a princely pension; but being of a highly nervous temperament, John, the last of the descendants of Jagello, survived his troubles but four years, dying at Nevers, 1672. After some months interregnum, Michael Koribut Wiesznowski, alleged to be collaterally descended from Jagello, but in a very mean situation at the time, was chosen king, 1669, as MICHAEL I. During his brief reign, John Sobieski, one of his generals, gave the Turks a dreadful overthrow at Choczyn, on the Dniester, 1673, though their army consisted of more than 300,000 men; and had this victory been pursued, the Cossacks would have been entirely subdued, and very advantageous terms might have been obtained from the sultan. Of that vast multitude of Turks, no more than 15,000 escaped death or imprisonment; but the Polish soldiers, being bound, by an absurd law of their country, only to stay a certain time in arms, refused to pursue the fugitives, and permitted the king to make peace on any terms he could procure. Wiesznowski died before the news of this transaction reached Cracow; and upon his death a new scene of confusion ensued, till at last the fortune of John Sobieski prevailed, and he was elected king of Poland, 1674.

HOLLAND UNDER DE WITT.—On the death of the stadtholder William II. 1650, without issue (though a posthumous son, our William III. was born to him), a war began between Holland and revolutionary England, on commercial grounds. By invariably pursuing the maxims of prudence and industry, the United

Provinces had attained the highest pitch of grandeur. Amsterdam had become the emporium of Europe, and the richest city in the universe.

Holland alone contained 3,000,000 of souls; and all the other provinces were proportionably populous. The States despatched ministers and consuls to China, Siam, and Bengal, to the Great Mongul, the king of Persia, the khan of Tartary, the Grand Seigneur, the czar of Muscovy, and the princes of Africa; and their extensive commerce, their colonies in the East and West Indies, especially the islands of Java, Amboyna, &c., added yearly to their immense wealth. It was scarcely possible that any long peace should be maintained between countries so manifestly devoted to one and the same pursuits as England and Holland then were—that of extending power, by finding new marts in foreign lands for the sale of their commodities, and by seizing as much of the globe as could be turned to their respective advantage by colonisation. The ostensible ground of quarrel was the encroachment of the Dutch on the territories of the East India Company; and war being declared by Great Britain, admiral Blake was invested with the chief command of the English ships, while the equally celebrated Van Tromp commanded the enemy. The coasts of England and Holland were witnesses of the repeated engagements of these warlike leaders; in both of whom intrepidity supplied the want of numbers, and unshaken presence of mind maintained the contest where valour seemed unable to decide the victory. At length Monk (eventually duke of Albemarle) was united in command with Blake; and the two obtained a signal victory over Van Tromp, 1653, that gallant Dutch leader being killed on the quarter-deck, while in the act of directing the boarding of an English ship. The States General, after this defeat, solicited a peace; and by the management of the grand pensionary John-de-Witt, a treaty was negotiated with

Cromwell. In this attempt at pacification, the secret article to exclude the family of Orange from the stadtholdership, in order to abolish the office wholly, brought odium on De Witt's administration; but notwithstanding the clamours of his enemies, and the invectives of the clergy, De Witt subdued opposition by his firmness, and was re-elected pensionary 1663. When war was declared against Charles II. of England 1664, De Witt exerted his power to make the naval armaments respectable; and after Opdam's defeat, he was one of those named to preside over the fleet. Whilst the commanders considered it impossible to sail but with only 10 points of the compass, he by mathematical calculation convinced them that only four points were against them, and 28 for them; and in consequence of this, the ships were safely conveyed from the Texel, through a passage since that time called De Witt's Diep. In 1667 the peace of Breda concluded hostilities. In that year, the pensionary established an edict to abolish the stadtholdership, which remained in abeyance until 1672; when a revolution restored it in the person of William, the before-named posthumous son of William II., now 22 years of age. On the immediate invasion of the country by 200,000 Frenchmen, soldiers of Louis XIV., the Dutch let in the sea, flooded the country, and compelled the enemy to retreat; but the mob conceiving that De Witt had planned the irruption, seized his brother at the instance of one Ticklaer, a barber, and threw him into prison, where, on the pensionary's coming to liberate his relative, both brothers were inhumanly butchered by the rabble. Their dead bodies were dragged to the gallows, and the pensionary's remains hung one foot higher than those of his brother. Their bodies, thus insulted, were cut into a thousand pieces; and it is said that some of the flesh was broiled and eaten by the savage murderers.

IRELAND UNDER CROMWELL. —

When Charles I. had agreed to that cessation of arms with the catholic rebels, 1643, which was become so requisite, as well for the security of the Irish peasants, as for promoting his interests in England, the parliament, in order to blacken his conduct, reproached him with favouring that odious rebellion, and exclaimed loudly against the terms of the truce. They even went so far as to declare it entirely null and invalid, because finished without their consent; and to this declaration the Scots in Ulster, and the earl of Inchiquin, a nobleman of great authority in Munster, professed to adhere. By their means the war was still kept alive; but as the dangerous distractions in England hindered the parliament from sending any considerable assistance to their allies in Ireland, the marquis of Ormonde, lord-lieutenant, being a native of Ireland, and a person of great prudence, formed a scheme for engaging the rebel Irish to support the cause of his royal master. Though O'Neale, who was still at the head of the insurgent party, entered into a secret treaty with the parliamentary generals, and even compelled Ormonde to fly for awhile to France, the latter returned; and the royalist affairs appeared soon in so prosperous a condition, that the young king entertained thoughts of coming in person to Ireland. Cromwell, however, to defeat Charles II.'s hopes, determined on his own appointment to the lieutenancy; and being commissioned by the parliament to proceed to Ireland, he arrived in Dublin, then in the hands of O'Neale's party, 1649, and was received with the utmost rejoicing. He hastened to Drogheda, a town into which Ormonde had thrown a garrison of 3000 men, under Sir Arthur Aston. Having made a breach, he ordered a general assault; and though twice repulsed with loss, he renewed the attack, and himself, along with Ireton, led on the men. At length the town was taken sword in hand; and orders being issued to give no quarter, a cruel

slaughter was made of the garrison. The brave governor Aston had his brains beaten out with his own wooden leg; and even a few who had been saved by the soldiers, now satiated with blood, were next day butchered by order of the general. Cromwell pretended to retaliate, by this severity, the cruelty of the Irish massacre; but he well knew that almost the whole garrison was English, and his justice was only a barbarous policy to terrify all other garrisons from resistance. The result was as he had expected. Having led the army without delay to Wexford, he began to batter the town. The garrison, after a slight defence, offered to capitulate; but, before they obtained a cessation, the English rushed in upon them, and the same cruelty was exercised as at Drogheda. Every town before which Cromwell presented himself, now opened its gates without resistance; and his troops had no further difficulties to encounter than what arose from fatigue and the advanced season. These, however, were formidable enough; fluxes and contagious distempers crept in among the soldiers, who perished in great numbers; and Cromwell at last found it impossible either to subsist in the enemy's country, or to retreat to his own garrison. But while in this dilemma, Cork, Kinsale, and all the English garrisons in Munster, deserted to him, and opening their gates, resolved to share the fortunes of their victorious countrymen. This desertion greatly diminished Ormonde's authority; and Cromwell, having received a reinforcement from England, again took the field early in the spring, and made himself master of Kilkenny and Clonmel, the only places where he met with any vigorous resistance. Ormonde was soon after succeeded by Clanricarde, who found affairs too desperate to admit of a remedy. The Irish were glad to embrace banishment as a refuge; above 40,000 men passed into foreign service; and Cromwell, well pleased to free the island from

enemies who never could be cordially reconciled to the English, gave them full leisure for their embarkation. So severely did the Irish smart under the lash of the usurper, that they gave no further disturbance during the Commonwealth, nor even throughout the reign of Charles II.

SCOTLAND UNDER THE COMMONWEALTH.—After Hamilton's defeat, 1648, the earl of Lanark assumed the command of the army, opposed by Argyle and the Leslys. At length their differences were made up, when Cromwell came to Edinburgh to strengthen Argyle's party, and conciliate the favour of the covenanters. The latter, however, declared for the young king, Charles II., and despatched the earls of Cassilis and Lothian to Breda, to invite him home, on condition of his becoming a presbyterian, and subscribing the covenant. On learning the death of his father, Charles appointed the marquis of Montrose captain-general of Scotland; who, having received some supplies of money, arms, and vessels from a few of the continental powers, sailed over to Orkney, and obtained recruits. He afterwards passed to Caithness, where he again endeavoured to raise the Highland clans in defence of their sovereign, but in vain. A party of horse, commanded by Strahan, came suddenly upon him; his followers, all but his immediate attendants, were cut in pieces; and Montrose himself having put on the dress of a peasant, was taken prisoner. Strahan carried him to Edinburgh, at the gate of which he was met by the magistrates, and put into a new cart, having in it a new bench on which he was tied, bareheaded, the executioner going before with his bonnet on; the officers taken with him walking two and two by the side of the cart. After being carried before the parliament, and told by Loudon, the chancellor, to repent of his sin in breaking the covenant, he was condemned to death, and executed May 21, 1650, at the age of 38. Charles, on hearing of his fate, instantly set sail from Holland with

2000 followers, and landing at Leith, was crowned king of Scotland in the abbey of Scone, June 23. He, however, became unhappy under the restraints now imposed on him; he disrelished the daily devotions and unyielding strictness of the covenanters; and having quarrelled with Argyle, the principal leader, he endeavoured to make his escape to general Middleton, who commanded a body of old royalists. Pursued, however, and overtaken, he was persuaded to return, and the rigour of his treatment was thereon mitigated; but all attachment on either side was extinguished. As soon as the English parliament found that the king was likely to accommodate matters with the Scots, they prepared for war; and Cromwell invaded their country with 16,000 men by land, while an English fleet entered the Forth. But the Scots raised a formidable force under general Lesly, who compelled the usurper to retreat to Dunbar, and would have established the independence of his country, had not the presbyterian clergy forced him, in spite of his remonstrances, to descend into the plain, Sept. 3, 1650, that he might annihilate (as they promised him he should) the English. Cromwell, whose energies seemed to rise in emergency, instantly, although with less than half the number of the enemy, stood their attack, routed them with the loss of 12,000 in killed and prisoners, and pursuing them as far as Edinburgh and Leith, took possession of those towns. He afterwards forced a passage over the Forth at Inverkeithing, by means of his fleet, in the face of a body of the enemy, whom he defeated; whilst Charles, who commanded the Scottish army, reduced to despair, embraced a resolution worthy of a young prince contending for empire. Persuading his generals to enter into his views, the army, amounting to 14,000 men, rose with one consent from their camp, and advanced by rapid marches into England, where Charles expected his friends would flock to his standard.

In this however he was disappointed; and on arriving at Worcester, he found his forces not only unaugmented, but dispirited by their march. Cromwell, though surprised at this movement, quickly defeated its object; and ordering Lambert, with a body of cavalry, to hang upon the rear of the royal army, he himself, leaving Monk with 7000 men to complete the reduction of Scotland, followed the king with 30,000 men, and overtook him at Worcester. A most desperate engagement immediately took place, September 30, 1651, in which the whole Scottish army were either killed or taken prisoners. The duke of Hamilton was mortally wounded; and the king himself, after giving many proofs of personal valour, was obliged to fly. After so important a

victory, the English under Monk took Stirling Castle, defeated the earls of Leven and Crawford near Perth, and stormed Dundee; the inhabitants of which he put to the sword by command of Cromwell. The last effort in the royal cause was made by the earl of Glencairn, lord Balcarras, and general Middleton, having under them a small body of Highlanders; but being attacked by general Morgan, they were defeated, 1654: after which St. Andrews, Inverness, Aberdeen, and all the other towns, submitted to the republicans. The prudent conduct of general Monk, who was hereupon made governor of Scotland, served much, after a while, to reconcile the Scots to their lot, and to prevent any further outbreak during Cromwell's sway.

EMINENT PERSONS.

ROBERT BLAKE (1600–1657) was born at Bridgewater, of a good family, and educated there, and at St. Alban's Hall and Wadham College, Oxford. Soon after leaving the university, he fell in with persons who induced him to turn puritan: nevertheless at 24 he stood for member of parliament, and was returned for his native town. During the civil wars, he espoused the cause of the parliament, and assisted in the defence of both Bristol and Taunton; of which latter he was afterwards made governor, with a reward of 500*l*. But his taste was for the sea; and entering into that service, he, in 1649, commanded the fleet with Dean and Popham, and pursued prince Rupert to Ireland, where he blocked him up at Kinsale; and he thence proceeded to Portugal and Spain, where he seized several valuable ships. On his return, he was made warden of the Cinque Ports, and invested with the chief command in the Dutch war. His abilities were opposed by the equally celebrated Van Tromp; and the coasts of England and Holland were witnesses of the repeated engagements of these warlike leaders, in both of whom intrepidity supplied the want of numbers. Blake next

sailed, by order of Cromwell, to the Mediterranean; where he chastised the insolence of the bey of Tunis, redeemed the Christian captives of Algiers and Tripoli, alarmed the pope in the castle of St. Angelo, and compelled Venice and Tuscany to pay homage to the British usurper. He then attacked Santa Cruz in Teneriffe, and destroyed the Spanish plate-fleet that had taken refuge there; an action so welcome to Cromwell, that a day of thanksgiving was appointed on the occasion, and a diamond ring worth 500*l*. presented to the commander. Blake's health now rapidly declined; and on his return from the Mediterranean, he expired, just as his fleet entered Plymouth, 17th of August, 1657, in his 58th year. Though fighting with such zeal for Cromwell, he was by no means friendly to his usurpation. When Charles was tried, he exclaimed with all the bluntness of a seaman against the proceeding, and offered to yield up his life to save that of the unfortunate monarch; and he told his officers, when the Dutch expected a change of measures from the dissolution of the parliament by Cromwell, 'It is not for us to mind state affairs, but to

keep foreigners from fooling us: I fight not for Cromwell, but for my country!' Though laden with public favours, Blake died in such circumstances, that his property was, at his decease, scarcely increased 500*l.* beyond what he had inherited from his father. Like the founders of Roman freedom, he fought, not for lucre, but for his native land.

JOHN MILTON (1608—1674) was son of a scrivener, born in London, educated at St. Paul's school, and Christ College, Cambridge, and, though intended by his parents for the church, refused to take holy orders. Being permitted to travel, he visited Italy; and after experiencing the kindness of cardinal Barberini and other learned men at Rome, returned to England. His father's means not being great, he opened a school in Aldersgate-street, London, and promulgated a plan of education, which all subsequent experience has shown to be visionary and delusive. In 1641, having adopted republican notions, he vented his violence against the church of England; and in 1643, in a few weeks after marrying the daughter of an Oxfordshire magistrate, named Powell, whose family maintained high tory principles, his bride quitted him. Disgusted with this conduct, the poet (for such Milton had already become by the publication of his unnoticed *Comus*, *L'Allegro*, *Il Pensero*, and *Lycidas*.) wrote tracts in favour of divorce, and paid his addresses to another lady. This, however, had its due effect; and his wife, relenting, threw herself at his feet, and obtained his forgiveness, 1645. From Aldersgate-street Milton removed to Barbican, and thence to Holborn; where he rejoiced at the prospect of the fall of the regal government. When he had defended the trial and execution of the king, he was appointed Latin secretary to the council of state; and in this office he answered the 'Ikon Basilike' by his 'Iconoclastes', 1649, and two years after published his celebrated work against Salmasius, 'Pro

populo Anglicano Defensio,' which not only spread his fame through Europe as an elegant Latinist, but procured for him from the government a present of 1000*l.* About this time he lost his eyesight; but he continued active in the support of his principles; and his wife dying 1652, he soon after married a second. Though raised to independence by Cromwell and his son Richard, the poet saw with terror the approaching dissolution of his favourite republic; and not all the labours of his pen could uphold the crumbling fabric. At the Restoration, he concealed himself in a friend's house in Bartholomew-close; but though his conduct had marked him out for destruction, he was, by the interest of his friends, included in the act of amnesty. After marrying a third wife, he settled in Artillery-walk; in which place, (where he lived longer than in any other), he was accustomed to sit at his door in the summer-time, habited in a grey coarse coat, and receive the homage of persons of rank and eminence. Though reduced in circumstances, he refused the Latin secretaryship offered him by Charles II.; and having retired during the plague of 1665 to Chalfont, Bucks, he, by the assistance of Ellwood, a quaker, completed his 'Paradise Lost.' Ellwood hereupon told the poet he had said much about 'Paradise Lost,' but 'what hast thou,' he added, 'to say of Paradise found?' The hint was not lost; and 'Paradise Regained' was the result. Though both works remained long unknown, they at length gradually rose to notice, fame, and immortality. Milton died 1674, aged 66. The person of Milton was fair, his features were exact and even effeminate, and his hair of a light brown colour; so that he was called at Cambridge 'the lady of Christ College.' His constitution was tender, and his health consequently delicate. In his mode of living he was economical; and though he inherited little from his father, he left at his death 1500*l.*

Three daughters (all by his first wife) survived him ; and to them he used to dictate his verses, as they came from the alembic of his gifted imagination, for publication. If we regard Milton as a private individual, we certainly can find little to admire in his character. First a puritan, and then an independent, it was at last doubted whether he died of any distinct profession of faith ; and as to his whole political life, we believe his own line ' Better to rule in hell than serve in heaven,' is allowed to show the principle on which he acted as a citizen. As a poet, his *Allegro* and *Penseroso* would alone establish his reputation. His *Paradise Lost* has placed him on fame's highest pinnacle. For the last-named work he obtained but 15*l.* from the booksellers, and that only by instalments ; but at length its sterling merits were acknowledged. As a crowning piece to the mysteries and moralities of the early ages, it is a wondrous production indeed, and as a poem unexceptionable ; but the more correct taste of our day views with repugnance any attempt to dramatise subjects really sacred, as is shown by the invariable failure of subsequent similar works to obtain the unqualified approbation of mankind. All such productions, however pious the intention, and talented the execution, are, we humbly conceive, mistakes.

CONTEMPORARIES. — *John Hampden*, born of an ancient family at Great Hampden, Bucks, completed his education at Magdalen College, Oxford, and succeeding early to an ample estate by the decease of his father, obtained a seat in parliament 1626. On finding the popular side decline, he engaged a ship to carry himself and other puritans to New England, 1637 ; and it is elsewhere shown how ominously the vessel was detained, against the will of the malcontents. Hampden, nothing daunted, now opposed the levy of ship-money in the house, though the judges had decided in favour of the king's privilege ; and on being prosecuted for

his resistance, he argued the case for twelve days, against the crown lawyers, before the twelve judges. Being convicted, he was regarded as a fit leader of the republican party ; and when the struggle commenced, he took a command, and was mortally wounded at Chalgrave-field, Oxfordshire, against Prince Rupert, June 18th, 1643, dying six days after, aged 49. *Thomas Fairfax*, son of lord Fernando Fairfax, took a command against king Charles in the civil war ; and after being successful at Marston Moor, was intrusted with the chief command of the parliament-army, on the resignation of Essex. He contributed to the king's defeat at Naseby 1645 ; in 1648 succeeded to his father's title and reduced Colchester, unjustifiably causing Sir George Lisle and Sir Charles Lucas, after the promise of pardon, to be shot ; and after Charles's murder, favoured the views of the usurper. At the Restoration, he was reconciled to Charles II., and died, aged 60, 1671. *Robert Devereux*, son and successor of Elizabeth's favourite, the earl of Essex, was educated at Merton College, Oxford, and having married lord Suffolk's daughter, saw the tie dissolved by the lady herself, in order that she might become the wife of Carr, earl of Somerset. He commanded the parliament-army at Edgehill and Newbury, reduced Reading, and relieved Gloucester ; but he was unsuccessful in Cornwall, and obliged to escape by sea to London 1645, whereon the parliament deprived him of his authority by the self-denying ordinance. He died, aged 54, 1646.

William Prynne, born at Swanswick, Somerset, left Oriel College, Oxford, for the bar, and became highly celebrated as a forensic speaker. Adopting the republican opinions, he was fined 5000*l.*, and sentenced to lose his ears, for a libel on the queen ; but he afterwards sat in the long parliament, and contributed to the death of Laud. He eventually opposed Cromwell himself, and was imprisoned by that usurper ; and at

the Restoration, he was made keeper of the records. He died, aged 69, 1669. *John Lilburne*, a demagogue, who was released by the long parliament from a star-chamber imprisonment, before which he had been fined and pilloried for sedition. He then became a leader in the republican army; but, quarrelling with Cromwell, he was more than once imprisoned, and on being fined 7000*l.*, escaped to Amsterdam. There he offered to restore the exiled family for 10,000*l.*, but was not listened to; and returning to England on the dissolution of the long parliament, he turned preacher among the quakers, and died at Eltham, aged 49, 1657.

Blaise Pascal, born at Clermont in Auvergne, early displayed his physical talent by solving father Mersenne's problem of the cycloid. At the age of 26, in 1649, a turn for mystical devotion drew him from mathematical studies, and he gradually sank into a state of hypochondriasis; but, such is the singularity of nervous affections, his 'Provincial Letters,' a most talented satire upon the Jesuits, in favour of the Jansenists, emanated from his pen during the years of his affliction. His clever and pious 'Pensées' also were then produced; but his austerities, his iron girdle, hair shirt (though no Jesuit), and poor diet, brought him to the grave in his 40th year, 1662. To Pascal science is indebted for the experimental establishment of the great law of hydrostatics, 'that liquids press in proportion to their perpendicular depth;' and he may be said to have furnished us with nearly all the material advances made upon those fundamental principles of the science originally demonstrated by Archimedes, and subsequently by Galilei and Stevin. *Samuel Puffendorf*, son of a divine of Misnia, became classical tutor in the family of the Swedish consul at Copenhagen, and was imprisoned there, with the consul's household, by Charles X. of Sweden, who suddenly appeared as an enemy before Copenhagen, 1657.

The publication, when released, of his Elements of Jurisprudence obtained him the chair of law at Heidelberg, 1660; and his remaining years were spent in the literary service of the elector of Brandenburg, the emperor Leopold, and Charles XI. of Sweden, the latter of whom made him a baron. He died, aged 63, 1694. His Treatise on the Law of Nature and of Nations is his chief work; and though it had at first a host of enemies, for its attacks on the prevailing ethics of the schoolmen, it was at length eulogised by pope Innocent XI., and is now constantly referred to as a text book by statesmen and diplomats. *John Freinshemius*, born at Ulm, in Suabia, became professor of eloquence at Upsal, and librarian to queen Christina of Sweden. He is now regarded for his admirable supplements to Livy and Quintus Curtius, as well as for his notes on Tacitus and Phædrus. He died, aged 52, 1660.

James Harrington, born at Upton, Northamptonshire, completed his studies at Trinity College, Oxford; and entering the army, served for some time under lord Craven, in Holland. Though a puritan, he could never obtain a seat in the commons; but when the commissioners removed the captive Charles from Newcastle nearer London, Harrington was selected to attend on his person. The unfortunate king was pleased with his conversation, parted from him at Hurst Castle with much concern, and, when on the scaffold, distinguished him by a token of his regard. But Harrington was a fierce demagogue, loaded the memory of the monarch whom he had guarded to his death with every foul epithet, and described him as 'a tyrant cut off by God's avenging hand.' At the Restoration he was imprisoned for treasonable practices, but released on giving bail, on account of ill health; and he died, aged 66, 1677. As an author, he had considerable fame through his 'Oceana,' a political romance, wherein he lays down the

plan of an immaculate republic ; but the work is now little read, and has little in it beyond airy speculation to compensate for its very rough diction. *James Golius*, born at the Hague, accompanied the Dutch embassy to Marocco, and while there acquired the Arabic language. Flattered by the encomiums of the king of Fez, who admired the facility with which he had obtained his acquisition, he made oriental languages henceforth his study, visited Aleppo for 15 months, made excursions into Irak and Arabia, and returned by way of Constantinople to Leyden, 1629 ; bringing with him manuscripts which have ever since continued the pride of the latter university. He compiled an Arabic lexicon, and edited and translated many eastern works, dying, aged 71, 1667. *Kenelm Digby*, son of Sir Everard, who suffered for the gunpowder-plot, was educated at Gloucester Hall, Oxford, and, on returning from the usual continental tour, drew the public attention to his cure of wounds by 'a sympathetic powder.' This quackery, the result of his taste for astrology, together with his fine person and good address, occasioned king James to knight him, 1623 ; and on the accession of Charles I., he was made a gentleman of the bedchamber, and a commissioner of the navy. He now obtained reputation by fitting out a small squadron, at his own cost, to cruise against the Venetians and Algerines ; and on visiting France, he was reclaimed by the arguments of the catholic priests to the religion of his ancestors. Though imprisoned by the parliament on the breaking out of the civil war, he was released to go abroad ; and after visiting Descartes, published at Paris a new system of philosophy, combining the platonic and peripatetic notions regarding the nature of bodies, and the operation of the soul, and constituting what has been termed 'the corpuscular philosophy.' On the fall of Charles, he compounded for his estate ; and, during the commonwealth, visited

England to negotiate a toleration for the catholics, to which Cromwell was inclined. At the Restoration, he returned, but was only known then for his attention to alchymy, 'the sympathetic powder,' and for his taste as a virtuoso. His beautiful wife, Venetia, who died young, was the theme of poets, and the frequent subject of painters ; and numerous portraits and busts of her are extant. Sir Kenelm died, aged 62, 1665.

Nicolas Mercator, whose real name was Kauffman, was born in Holstein. Coming to England, he promulgated a mode of demonstrating the quadrature of the hyperbola, 1667, and died in London, 1694, aged 54. *William Somner*, born at Canterbury, became assistant to his father in the ecclesiastical court there, but studied antiquities rather than law. In 1657 he was made Saxon professor at Cambridge, was imprisoned for petitioning for a free parliament 1658, but at the Restoration was made master of St. John's hospital, Canterbury, where he died 1669. His 'Antiquities of Canterbury' is a well-known valuable work. *John Henry Hottinger*, born at Zurich, became a celebrated linguist, especially in the oriental dialects ; and after holding various offices in the university of Zurich, was appointed by the elector-palatine to restore the university of Heidelberg, 1655, of which he became rector. He was drowned by the upsetting of a boat near Zurich, while on a visit there, at the age of 47, 1667. All his works are on oriental history, languages, &c. *Samuel Bochart*, born at Rouen, was a Huguenot, and minister of Caen, and became known in England and Sweden by his theological disputations. Queen Christina, however, annoyed him by pretending to believe him a first-rate violinist, and asking him to perform before the court ; and returning home, he died of apoplexy, while disputing with his friend Huet in the academy of Caen, aged 68, 1667. Bochart is now respected for his 'Phaleg et Canaan, seu Geographia Sacra,' showing deep research

into ancient history, and for his account of Scripture animals. *Francisco Albano*, born at Bologna, went with Guido Reni to study painting under the Caracci at Rome. He became famous for the grace of his female figures, and for the design of his cupids; his beautiful wife Doralice being the model of the former, and his 12 children by her of the latter. Some of his landscapes and fancy pieces also are in high esteem, particularly 'The Four Elements' painted for the king of Sardinia. He visited England at the invitation of Charles I.; but died at Bologna, aged 82, 1660. *John Biddle*, born at Wotton-under-Edge, Gloucestershire, was educated at Magdalen College, Oxford, and chosen master of Gloucester free grammar-school. In that capacity he wrote 12 arguments against the Trinity, and being summoned before the parliament, his work was burned by the common hangman, 1646. An act was then passed, making it a capital offence to impugn the Trinity; and Biddle would have been hanged but for the ascendancy of the Independents, who, on the death of Charles, promoted a general toleration. His 'Twofold Scripture Catechism,' however, caused Cromwell to imprison him again; but when tried for his life, the usurper sent

him off to the Scilly Isles, and he became thereon an independent. After the Restoration he was thrown into gaol once more for preaching openly as a dissenter; and a fever while in durance carried him off, in his 47th year, 1662. According to Toulmin, Biddle is to be regarded as the founder of the modern unitarians; but it would seem he did not deny our Lord's divinity, but that of the Holy Spirit. *Gottfried Wendelein*, born in Brabant, became professor of philosophy at Digne in France; and in that capacity gave the first accurate notion of the motions of Jupiter's satellites. He edited the Salique Laws with learned notes, and died canon of Tournay, 1660.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1649, Mohammed IV. POPES.—1644, Innocent X.; 1655, Alexander VII. FRANCE.—1643, Louis XIV. SWEDEN.—1633, Christina; 1654, Charles X. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1648, Frederick III. PORTUGAL.—1640, John IV.; 1656, Affonso VI. SPAIN.—1621, Philip IV. GERMANY.—1637, Ferdinand III.; 1658, Leopold I. POLAND.—1648, John II. (Casimir.) RUSSIA.—1645, Alexis I. PERSIA.—1641, Abbas II. DELHI.—1628, Shah Jehan; 1658, Alemgir I., (Aurungzeb.) CHINA.—1643, Shun-chi.

REIGN CLXVII.

CHARLES II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1660 TO 1685—25 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Charles II. was born May 29, 1630. He was 19 years of age when he received news at the Hague, whither he had been sent at the beginning of the civil war, of the tragical death of his parent, 1649; and at the invitation of the Scots, who wished to wipe away the stain of their treachery to his predecessor, he crossed to Scotland, and was crowned at Scone, 1651. Charles here saw himself surrounded by all the jealousy of the republicans, and the fanaticism of the presbyterians; and these subjected him to so many mortifications, that he willingly saw a large party of them beaten while fighting on his side at Dunbar, Sept. 3, 1650; and he ever afterwards entertained an invincible aversion against them. His coronation took place at Scone, Jan. 1, 1651; but the approach of Cromwell rendering his abode in Scotland unsafe, he took the spirited resolution of passing that

general's army, and entering England, hoping there to be joined by the royalists. Cromwell, however, immediately pursued him, and in a battle at Worcester, Sept. 3. 1651, wholly destroyed his hopes. The prince fled, disguised as a peasant; and after a series of romantic adventures, of which he afterwards dictated an account to Mr. Pepys, escaped to France. Here and in Holland he remained 11 years an exile; during which he gained little in morals, surrounded as he was by fortune-hunting and ill-bred men, who encouraged, merely to obtain his favour, the natural bent of his disposition towards sensual indulgences.

Charles married, 1662, Catherine, daughter of John IV., king of Portugal, by whom he had no issue, and with whom he was by no means cordial. He was in his person tall, dark in complexion, and urbane and dignified in general deportment. His judgment was clear, his understanding extensive, his conversation animated, and his talent for repartee and merriment inexhaustible. He was also easy of access, polite, and affable. His greatest enemies admit that he was a civil husband, an affectionate father, and an indulgent master; and that he was ever averse from cruelty. He was, however, indolent, profuse, careless of glory in its correct sense, and wholly regardless of what the better classes of his subjects thought of him. The hypocrisy of the various sectaries had occasioned him to regard his religious duties as of secondary import; though in his latter days he was in this respect more exemplary. If the period of his rule was marked by the love of gaiety, splendour, and luxury, and by a general dissolution of manners, the cause may be chiefly looked for in the previous harass of the public mind by civil commotion, and in the puritanical restraint on moral habits that had been enforced during Cromwell's sway.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—It was no sooner known on the continent that the English had returned to their ancient loyalty, than Spain invited Charles to take shipping for his country at one of her ports in the Netherlands, France offered Calais, and the States General sent deputies to request he would repair at once to the Hague. The latter offer he accepted, remarking with his native humour, that 'it was wondrous to see all the world so piteously inclined to him' and certainly it appeared as if, on a sudden, the whole of Europe had roused itself to give joy to a prince who had, in many years of anxiety and absolute distress, lived as one forgotten of the world, and whose condition had been singularly slighted when most deserving of commiseration.

Charles embarked on board the fleet, of which his brother, the duke of York, took the command; and having landed at Dover, hastened with a few attendants to Rochester. From this town it was agreed the royal procession should commence. Accordingly, on horseback, supported on one side by the duke of York and on the other by the duke of Gloucester, his brothers, he, on his birthday, May 29, quitted the inn whereat he had passed the previous night, for the great metropolis. The road was everywhere strewn with flowers; triumphal arches, crowned with garlands, were erected at almost every mile of the way; in all the villages butts of wine were set running; and the fronts of the houses were hung with pieces of tapestry, and (commemorative of Boscobel tree) with immense boughs of oak, having the apples gilded; while the inhabitants, in a sort of military array, took their station on the paths, armed with halberds and anything which would give them the semblance of a temporary militia. Many of the trainbands of London had drawn themselves up at the top of Shooter's-hill, arrayed in costly suits, and purposing to accompany the king to the city. On Blackheath, the main body of the army, under the command of Monk, was posted, and received the monarch with a shout that displayed how truly his resto-

ration was the national wish. From this point to London so vast was the assemblage of persons, that the king was oftentimes carried by the press, as if in the air, though those about him tried by good words, and often by blows, to keep off the crowd; but when the royal party had reached the city boundaries, the mayor and aldermen, with the trainbands, all in new clothing, kept the way clear, and made a part in the procession to Whitehall.

Charles's first measures on being restored to his inheritance, May 26, 1660, were prudent and conciliatory. Hyde, lord Clarendon, was made chancellor and prime minister; an act of indemnity was passed, from which alone were excepted all who had been immediately concerned in the late king's death; a settled revenue was for the first time agreed upon; the army was reduced; and an act of uniformity passed with respect to religion. By the latter, the clergy of the established church, who had been superseded mostly by presbyterians, were restored to their livings. No more than six of the late king's judges, Harrison, Scott, Carew, Clement, Jones, and Scrope, were executed. Axtell, who had guarded the high court of justice, Hacker, who commanded on the day of execution, Coke, the solicitor for the people of England, and Hugh Peters, the fanatical preacher, who had inflamed the army to regicide, suffered with the judges; and no saint or confessor ever went to martyrdom with more assured confidence of heaven, than was expressed by those criminals when the terrors of death were before them. The rest of the king's murderers, by an unexampled lenity, were reprieved.

The king's revenue was soon seen to be too small for his expenditure, enlarged as that was by a natural carelessness, and the claims made upon him by needy friends; and he was compelled to sell Dunkirk, which had been taken from the French by Cromwell, to liquidate his debts. In 1663 a rupture took place with Holland, which was not healed before a Dutch fleet, under De Ruyter, sailed up the Thames, and, to the consternation of the people, took Sheerness, destroyed a chain of ships drawn across the Medway to stop the progress of the enemy, and then attacked Portsmouth, Plymouth, and Harwich. The whole coast was in alarm; but the French, who declared on the side of Holland, aided her not with their fleet, or the consequences would have been fatal. The domestic calamities of the plague 1665, and fire of London 1666, added to the disasters of the period. Lord chancellor Clarendon, the king's chief adviser, but whom he by no means loved, became hereupon so unpopular, that Charles dismissed him, and he sought safety in voluntary exile abroad. A triple alliance between England, Holland, and Sweden, for the purpose of checking the ambition of Louis XIV. followed; a measure planned by Sir William Temple, a very clear-headed politician. The thoughtless profusion of Charles, however, rendered him a mere pensioner of Louis himself, who secretly supported him in many attempts to keep up and extend his prerogative.

In 1670 the king threw himself into the hands of five unprincipled ministers, called, from the initials of their names, *the cabal*, whose main object was to rule without the parliament. These were *Sir Thomas Clifford*, who raised himself by intrigue and parliamentary eloquence; *lord Ashley*, soon after earl of Shaftesbury, one of the most remarkable men of his age, and the prime mover in all political conspiracies; the *duke of Buckingham*, the handsome, but reprobate leader of fashion; *Bennet, earl of Arlington*, a man of sound judgment, though of moderate capacity, and the best of the party; and the *earl of Lauderdale*, afterwards *duke*, a man of prejudice, ambition, and violent temper, who swayed the king throughout his reign. A visit which Charles received at this period from his sister, the duchess of Orleans, was rendered subservient to French policy by means of one of her attendant ladies, an extremely beautiful woman, whom the king created duchess of Portsmouth;

and Louisa de Querouaille retained an influence over Charles, which kept him steadily attached to France. The party troubles of Charles's reign commenced about this time, by a declaration on the part of the duke of York, the next heir to the crown, that he was a Roman catholic. Soon after, the ministry broke the triple alliance, and planned a rupture with the Dutch; and, as the king would not ask the parliament for money to carry on the projected war, he caused the exchequer to be shut up, 1672, and by several other arbitrary proceedings, gave great offence and alarm to the nation. Meanwhile the duke of York, afterwards James II., was made admiral of the fleet against the Dutch; and as he lay in Solebay, in conjunction with a French squadron under D'Estrees, he was attacked by the Dutch admiral De Ruyter. A fierce engagement ensued, in which the earl of Sandwich, second in command, was blown up in his ship, and that of the duke was so much shattered, that he was obliged to shift his flag to another. The Dutch fleet at length retired; but the English were unable to pursue, their French allies held aloof, peace was made with Holland, and the Cabal ministry was dissolved.

Three years of parliamentary and ministerial disagreement ensued; until, in 1677, Charles performed a popular act, by marrying his niece, the princess Mary, to the prince of Orange, thus making common interest with protestant Holland: he also forwarded the general peace of Nimeguen, 1678. The same year was distinguished by the pretended discovery of a papist plot for the assassination of the king, and the restoration of the catholic faith. Notwithstanding the infamous characters of Oates and Bedloe, and the improbable nature of their disclosures, their tale, supported by a belief in the secret influence of a catholic faction, met with universal credit; and the parliament exhibited nearly as much zeal on the occasion as the vulgar. Many catholic lords were committed; Coleman, the duke of York's secretary, and several priests were hanged; and the earl of Stafford, a venerable nobleman, was beheaded. The duke of York fled to Brussels; and a bill for his exclusion from the throne passed the commons. Such was the state of the country, that Charles was obliged to give way to some popular measures; and that palladium of civil liberty, the Habeas Corpus act, passed in this session.

The temper of the parliament now became such, that the king was induced to dissolve it, 1679. The epithets of *whig* and *tory* were vigorously applied; and the two next assemblies, 1680 and 1681 (the last at Oxford), were so restive, so determined on the exclusion of the duke of York, and so opposed to Charles's views, that, like his father, he a third time dissolved the parliament, with a determination to rule without the commons, 1681. The presbyterian party was certainly labouring to thwart the court; and a dangerous colour was given to many of its acts, by the discovery that several men of title, not famous for any religious faith, were the counsellors of those sectaries. A man named College was executed for a conspiracy against the king, and the famous lord Shaftesbury was tried, but acquitted. The nonconformists generally were treated with rigour; and a step of great moment in the progress of Charles to arbitrary power, was the instituting *quo warrantos*, by which most of the corporations in the kingdom were called upon to resign their charters, in order to receive them back so modelled as to render them much more dependant than before. These measures at length produced the *Rye-house plot*, 1683, which certainly intended resistance; but that the assassination of the king was ever formally projected, seems extremely doubtful. It assuredly formed no part of the intention of Lord William Russel; whose execution, with that of Algernon Sydney, on account of it, forms one of the most disgraceful events of this reign.

Charles was at this time as absolute as any monarch in Europe ; and had he been an active prince, might have transmitted to his successors his unshorn prerogative. Scotland was compelled to embrace episcopacy, though it had been thrown into commotion, at different periods of the reign, on the mere threat of such a measure ; and the relics of the Covenanters were suppressed with great severity. It is true that the latter had maintained and displayed a spirit of mutiny and sedition ; and that Cameron and Cargill, two famous preachers, had publicly excommunicated and anathematised the king, calling on their hearers to renounce their allegiance to him. Cameron was killed by the troops in an action at Air-Moss : Cargill was taken and hanged. Charles is said to have been anxious at length to stay these harsh proceedings ; but his design was frustrated by an apoplectic fit, of which he expired, February 6, 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. In his last moments he received the sacrament, and declared his faith in one holy catholic church, in the presence of the excellent bishop Ken and other divines ; and his remains were interred in Westminster Abbey.

EVENTS.

THE PLAGUE OF LONDON, 1665.—The plague of eastern nations visited London in this eventful year. The former infectious diseases, which had been designated by the generic term of plague, had varied greatly in character, and might be considered, with the exception of the black death, as endemic affections of the island. A violent plague, imported from Egypt, had raged in Holland 1663 ; and though all intercourse with that country had been forbidden, the disorder was brought over by some contraband traffic 1664, at the close of which year three persons died suddenly in Westminster, with undoubted symptoms of the affection. A frosty winter prevented the rapid spread of the infection ; but in the ensuing spring it burst forth in the parish of St. Giles in all its horrors. The injudicious practice of closing houses, and thus shutting up the patients in a pestilential atmosphere (a measure frequently enforced, but often a voluntary one), caused perhaps the majority of deaths which ensued. In August the mortality amounted to 8000 weekly, the bodies being carried out of the city by night in carts, and buried beyond the walls in immense pits, without funeral rites, and, in most instances, without a particle of clothing. So grievous was the panic, that the ties of natural affection were dissolved ; and it was no uncommon

circumstance to see a son or daughter, who had stolen for a momentary change of air from the imprisonment of their houses, refused admittance to their homes, and left to perish in the streets. No less than 100,000 died ; and it was happy that the affection spread no farther from London than Deptford.—The disorder began with a fit of shivering and vomiting : a painful sensation was felt at the breast soon after, and a burning fever, with its common symptoms, succeeded. If the fever proceeded, either death in three days ensued, after delirium, or a tumour in the groin, hastily forming, discharged the morbid matter, and saved the patient's life. Where no fever occurred, or such was checked, purple spots appeared in every part of the body, and almost instant death was the result.

The following, from the pen of one who (by trade a saddler) remained at Aldgate in London throughout the visitation, will serve to illustrate what has been written. 'Business led me out sometimes to the other end of the town, even when the sickness was chiefly there ; and it was a surprising thing to see those streets, which were usually so thronged, now grown desolate, and so few people to be seen in them, that if I had been a stranger, and at a loss for my way, I might sometimes

have gone the length of a street, and have seen nobody to direct me. One day I went up Holborn, and there the street was full of people ; but they walked in the middle of the road-way, because they would not mingle with anybody that came out of houses, or meet with smells and scents from houses that might be infected. I shall not be supposed to lessen the authority or capacity of the physicians, when I say, that the violence of the distemper, when it came to its extremity, was like the fire of the next year ; the fire which consumed what the plague could not touch, defied all the application of remedies ; the fire-engines were broken, the buckets thrown away, and the power of man was baffled, and brought to an end. So the plague defied all medicines ; the very physicians were seized with it, with their preservatives in their mouths ; and they went about prescribing to others, and telling them what to do, till the tokens were upon themselves, and they dropt down dead in the presence of those they were advising. The locking-up of people's houses, and setting a watchman at the door, night and day, to prevent any stirring out, or any coming to them, when perhaps the sound people in the family might have escaped, if they had been removed from the sick, looked very hard and cruel ; and it is clear that many people perished in this way, who would not have been distempered if they had had liberty. At this some were very clamorous, and several violences were committed against the watchmen : and it would fill a volume to set down the arts used by the people of such houses to deceive those guardians. Not far from Coleman-street, they blew up a watchman with gunpowder, and burned the poor fellow dreadfully ; and while he made hideous cries, and nobody would venture to come near to help him, the whole family that were able to stir, got out at the windows. In some instances, the inmates let themselves

down from their windows in the face of the watchman, with swords or pistols in their hands, threatening the poor wretch to shoot him, if he called for help.

‘ Sometimes a man or woman dropped down in the very markets (for many people that had the plague upon them knew nothing of it) and died in a few moments : many also died in that manner in the streets, without any warning. Some perhaps had time to get to a stall or door-porch, and there sit down and die. When the plague came to be very raging, there was scarcely the power of passing through the streets, for the dead bodies lying here and there in the way ; and though at the beginning of the disorder, people would call to the neighbours as they went along to come out when they saw a person fall, yet afterwards no notice was taken of them. If at any time we found a corpse lying, we used to cross the way, or turn back ; and the bodies being left till night, the bearers attending the dead-cart would take them up and carry them away. Nor did the undaunted creatures who performed these offices fail to search the pockets of the victims, or even to strip their clothes, if they were well dressed, and carry them off.

‘ The swellings (before alluded to) in some grew hard, and they applied violent drawing-poultices to break them ; and if these did not do, they cut and scarified them in a terrible manner : so that many died raving mad with the torment. In these distresses, some laid violent hands upon themselves ; some broke out into the streets, perhaps naked, and would run directly down to the river, and throw themselves in.

‘ Though the plague was chiefly among the poor, yet were they the most fearless of it, and went about their employments with a sort of brutal courage ; so that there was no want of attendants on the sick, or of watchmen, or of those who could carry infected persons to the pest-house, and the

dead to their graves. I could here tell dismal stories of living infants found sucking the breasts of their dead mothers or nurses. A mother, in the parish where I lived (Aldgate) having a child that was not well, sent for an apothecary; and when he came, he saw the tokens upon that breast with which she was suckling her infant. Not willing to frighten the poor woman, he took the child, and going to a cradle in the room, laid it in, and opening its clothes, found the tokens upon the child too; and both died before he could get home to send a preventive medicine to the father of the child.'

The next and concluding extract requires it to be premised that a cart, awfully denominated 'the dead-cart,' one of the two conductors carrying a bell, while his companion shouldered something analogous to a lengthened pitchfork, paraded the streets of each parish of London within the liberties, from the moment of nightfall to within an hour of returning day. As the cart entered each street, the bell was sounded; and wherever a house was closed (which was the case in nine instances out of ten), the cart stopped, and he with the pitchfork rapped sturdily and abruptly at the door. Should no notice be taken of that summons in a minute's space, the cart passed on to the next closed house; and when, in reply, a door was opened, and one or more lifeless bodies were pushed out, the man with the fork skilfully conveyed each with his instrument to the vehicle, without exchanging a word with the pushers out, the door closed, and the cart passed on.

'I went all the first part of the time,' continues the saddler, 'freely about the streets, though not so freely as to run myself into apparent danger, except when they dug the great pit in the church-yard of our parish of Aldgate. A terrible pit it was; as near as I may judge, 40 feet in length, 16 broad, and nine deep. They had supposed this would have supplied them for a month or more

when they dug it; and some blamed the churchwardens for suffering such a frightful thing, telling them they were making preparations to bury the whole parish; but they began to bury in it on the 6th of September, and by the 20th they had thrown into it 114 bodies; and the bodies then lying within six feet of the surface, it was obliged to be closed up. It was on the 10th that my curiosity led me to look at this pit again, when about 400 had been thrown into it; and I resolved to go at night, and see some more thrown in. The sexton, on my arrival, earnestly persuaded me not to go into the church-yard; and his discourse having shocked my resolution a little, I stood wavering for awhile, till I saw two links approaching from the end of the Minories, and heard the bellman, and then appeared the dead-cart. So into the church-yard I went. There was no one, as far as I could perceive, on the spot, but the buryers, and the fellow that drove the cart; but when we came to the pit, we saw a man walking to and fro, muffled up in a cloak, and making motions now and then with his hands, as if in great agony. He proved to be one having his wife and several of his children in the cart that had just come in. Calmly desiring the buryers to let him alone, he said he would only see the bodies thrown in, and go away; but no sooner was the cart turned round, and the bodies had been shot into the pit promiscuously (which was a surprise to him, for he at least expected they would have been decently laid in), than he cried out aloud, unable to contain himself, went backward a few paces, and fell down in a swoon. In a little while he came to himself, and looked into the pit again; but the buryers had covered the bodies so immediately, that nothing of them could be seen. The cart had in it 16 or 17 bodies, some wrapped only in rags, some so loosely covered, that what clothing they had dropped from them in the shooting out, and they fell quite naked among the rest. There was no other way of

burials, neither was it possible there should ; for coffins were not to be had for the prodigious number that fell in such a calamity as this.'

THE FIRE OF LONDON, 1666.—The city had scarcely recovered from the desolation occasioned by the plague, when it was almost totally laid in ruins by a fire, which broke out in a baker's shop in Pudding-lane, September 2d ; and in a few hours destroyed Billingsgate ward. Before morning, the fire had crossed Thames-street, and burned down St. Magnus' Church : thence it proceeded to London-bridge, and having consumed a great pile of buildings thereon, was stopped by the want of other combustibles. That day (Sunday) the flames seized on Garlick-hithe ; and destroying Cannon-street, invaded Cornhill and the Exchange. On Monday, Tower-street, Gracechurch-street, Dowgate, Old Fish-street, Watling-street, and Threadneedle-street, were a series of ruins ; from all which the fire at once broke into Cheapside. That extensive street, ignited at all points, was one sea of flame ; and in a short space of time, the cathedral of St. Paul's was enveloped by the dreadful scourge. It took fire at the top, from the mere heat of the surrounding atmosphere ; and the great beams and massive stones breaking through and falling upon the church of St. Faith beneath, that ancient edifice was speedily in flames. Paternoster-row, Newgate-street, Ludgate-hill, the Old Bailey, Milk-street, Wood-street, Foster-lane, Cateaton-street, St. Martin's-le-grand, and part of Aldersgate-street, with innumerable petty lanes, courts, and alleys, successively fell a sacrifice ; and even so far westward as Fleet-street, the ravages of the fire were fatally marked. The furious element had now reached its greatest extent, and was several miles in compass. The vast clouds of smoke so obscured the sun, that it was either wholly hidden, or appeared, when dimly seen, as red as blood. The flames reached an immense way up into the air ; and the illumination thus occasioned, was distinctly ob-

served at Jedburgh, in Scotland. Some of the light ashes were carried 16 miles. Guildhall exhibited a singular appearance : the oak with which it was built was so solid, that it would not flame, but burned like charcoal, so that the building appeared for several hours like an enchanted palace of gold or burnished brass. At last, on Wednesday morning, when everyone expected that the suburbs would also be demolished, the fire began to abate ; partly owing to the wind ceasing, and partly to the insulation of houses on fire by gunpowder. King Charles was actively engaged during the visitation, day and night, with many of the lords, superintending the labours of the firemen, and aiding the magistrates and military in the preservation of order. It was finally ascertained that 13,000 houses, 87 churches, 52 halls, four stone bridges, three city-gates, St. Paul's Cathedral, the Custom House, Guildhall, Exchange, Gaol of Newgate, Bridewell, and numerous other edifices, public and private, to the value of 11,000,000*l.* [sterling, including wares and goods lost, had been swallowed up by this awful visitation. It was never certainly known whether the fire was contrived or accidental : the papists had the credit of originating it, as the monument of London, erected to commemorate the event, still avouches. As there are few human calamities which, if rightly viewed, produce not their share of good, so London, in its restored state, with widened streets and more commodious buildings, gained greatly in beauty and convenience ; while the materials of stone and brick being substituted for wood, rendered the spread of infectious disorders slow and difficult, and, with the airiness of the great thoroughfares, added much to the salubrity of the metropolis.

THE THREE PLOTS : OATES, MEAL, AND RYE.—The plot called *Oates's*, 1678, was the conspiracy of a few needy and worthless men, who took advantage of the temper of the times, which ran violently against the catholics, to get bread though at the cost

of blood. The king, while walking in the park one day, was warned by Kirby, a chemist, to keep with the company, as two men had agreed to take his life. Dr. Tongue, he said, had made known the plot to him; and that divine, on examination, gave up one Titus Oates, also a clergyman, but of bad character, as his informant. Oates, who had recently become a protestant, declared that he had been privy to the design of some Jesuits to overthrow the government, and kill the king; he solemnly, before Sir Edmonsbury Godfrey, a magistrate, affirmed to all the minutiae of a most terrific conspiracy. Charles from the first doubted the veracity of the man; but the assassination of Godfrey, whose body, undeprived of its clothes and some jewels, was found in a ditch at Primrose-hill, raised the voice of the whole nation against the papists, and the king was compelled to go with the stream. To deny the reality of the plot was to be an accomplice; each hour teemed with new surmises; invasions from abroad, insurrections at home, everything destructive of the country's peace, was anticipated; and all that Oates and one Bedloe swore, as to the papists having caused the fire of 1666, was credited to the very letter. Amid protestations of innocence, and sufficient proof of the perjuries of Oates and his party, many Jesuits, and even some who were not catholics, suffered death; and it was not until the queen herself was charged by Oates with a participation in the plot, that the indignant Charles ordered him to be arrested. The parliament again liberated him, and he was permitted to enjoy 1200*l.* a year, and apartments in Whitehall; but in the next reign he was convicted of perjury and pilloried, and then sank into contempt.—*The Meal-tub Plot*, 1679. One Dangerfield, a fellow who had been burned in the hand, pilloried, and publicly whipped for various crimes, who had been fined for cheats, and even outlawed for felony, pretended that he had been employed by the

catholics to betray the conspiracies of the presbyterian party against the throne; but finding their own designs the more dangerous, he determined on informing against the catholics. The plot derived its name from some papers relative to it being found in a meal-tub: and it only served to foment the hatred of the people towards the papists, and to prepare the public mind for the third exaggerated scheme.—*The Rye-house Plot*, 1683, was that third; and it received somewhat of a foundation from the fact that a very large portion of the people, including many noblemen, had resolved, in the event of Charles's death, to oppose the succession of his brother, the duke of York, on account of his being a catholic. Charles happened to be seized with an illness which threatened his life; whereupon the duke of Monmouth (the king's natural son), with lords Russel and Grey, instigated by the restless lord Shaftesbury, attempted secretly to raise the country, each in his department, and according to his local influence. Monmouth assailed the men of rank in Cheshire; lord Russel those of the west; and Shaftesbury undertook the city. An inferior class of men, with colonel Rumsey, an old round-head, as their leader, considering this a fit moment to attempt a restoration of the commonwealth, agreed, though without any authority from Monmouth's party, to act in concert with it. Rumsey even resolved on killing the king, who was now fast recovering from his ailment; and it was determined to overturn a cart in the road by the Rye-house, a farm belonging to a malster who was in the plot, on the day that the king should pass in his coach to Newmarket races. Charles, however, went by another road, and returned from Newmarket past the Rye-house eight days earlier than was expected, and so escaped. One Keiling, a salter, turning evidence, revealed these and other circumstances; and the consequence was the arrest of the leaders of both

parties. Monmouth absconded ; but Russel, Algernon Sydney, and other known opponents of the duke of York, were taken, brought to trial, and executed. The excellent lady Russel, who had in vain thrown herself at Charles's feet in her husband's behalf, soothed his last hours with a philosophical and Christian spirit, which, though by no means unusual, should not be expected in her sex : and the unfortunate nobleman went to the scaffold in Lincoln's-inn-fields, 1683, without the slightest appearance of fear. In his last speech, he strenuously maintained his abhorrence of the king's murder ; though he did not conceal his repugnance to the duke's succession. Sydney, who was a consistent republican, and had alike opposed Cromwell's elevation and Charles's restoration, met his death 'glorying in the good old cause,' he observed, 'in which, from early youth, he had enlisted himself.'

THE DISSENTERS' ACTS.—Four English acts of parliament were passed in this reign to stay the progress of dissent : 1. *The Conventicle Act*, which inflicted a fine on any person above sixteen who attended a conventicle where five were assembled ; 2. *the Corporation Act*, which forbade that any one should hold office in any city, unless he had received the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, according to the rites of the Church of England, within a year of his appointment ; 3. *the Five Mile Act*, which ordained that no dissenting teacher should come within five miles of any place where he had preached, after the act of oblivion ; and 4. *the Test Act*, which excluded from all offices, civil and military, all persons not qualifying by receiving the sacrament. These restraints, while they operated as a bond of iron upon the English nonconformists, only served to inflame the zeal of the puritans in Scotland, who, regarding episcopacy as sheer popery, now resolved to exterminate it even by the sword. The corporation and test acts were abolished 1829, when cal-

tholic emancipation (as it is termed) was effected.

ABDICATION OF CHRISTINA OF SWEDEN, 1654.—This eccentric princess reserved to herself, on this occasion, by an act of diet, the revenue of some districts in Sweden and Germany, and the independence and supremacy of her person ; and in a few days she set out for Brussels, where she privately abjured protestantism, publicly to embrace catholicism at Innspruck shortly after. From the Tyrol she travelled to Rome, making a sort of triumphal entrance on horseback, habited nearly in male attire. Here she surrounded herself with poets, painters, musicians, numismatists, and the like ; but soon disagreeing with the cardinals, she visited France, 1656. Her companions at Paris were authors and academicians : for her own sex she showed a greater contempt than ever ; and the only French woman about whom she seemed to take any interest, was Nihon L'Enclos. Her intrigues against Mazarin being discovered, she retired to Switzerland ; but she returned in the next year, and added to her notoriety by commanding the captain of her body-guard to put Monaldeschi, her master of horse, to death, in his residence (the royal palace) at Fontainebleau, for some breach of confidence. The French court remonstrated ; but she justified the atrocious act by stating that, by her deed of abdication, she had supreme power over her own suite—that she was still a queen, wherever she went, and that Monaldeschi was guilty of high treason. She, however, felt sufficiently uneasy to desire to quit France, and, as Cromwell refused to receive her in England, returned to Rome ; where she soon involved herself in pecuniary difficulties, and in a quarrel with pope Alexander VII. On the death of the king of Sweden, her cousin, 1660, she proceeded to Stockholm, purposing to reascend the throne ; but she found the people wholly opposed to her, and hurrying back, passed the remaining 29

years of her life in the eternal city. Through that long period her occupations were various. She aspired to the elective throne of Poland; interested herself for the Venetians in Candia, besieged by the Turks; engaged in the Quietest controversy; censured Louis XIV. for his revocation of the Edict of Nantes; and founded a literary 'academia';—the interludes of such great doings being grand quarrels with the holy father and the sacred college. Finally, her death occurred in the Capitol, at the age of 62, 1689.

RISE OF THE QUIETISTS.—Molinos, a Spanish priest, having published his 'Spiritual Guide,' 1681, wherein he spoke of the possibility of bringing the soul to a degree of perfection which he called the *unitive life*, had many followers; and Quietism became the appellation of his mystic doctrine. His opinions may be ascertained on reference to the 2nd century of the Church. One of the chief propagators of Quietism in France was Madame Guyon, a woman of fashion, remarkable for goodness of heart and regularity of life, but fond of attending to the suggestions of a warm and unbridled fancy. When the celebrated Bossuet had declared the opinions of Molinos heretical, 1687, a defence was set up for them by the amiable prelate Fénelon, who was, however, made to recant by Pope Innocent XII.

ERUPTION OF ÆTNA.—This most terrible volcanic eruption on record, occurred 1669. On the evening of Friday, the 8th of March, the sun was observed, contrary to what was usual, to appear pale before its setting; and during the succeeding night a terrible earthquake, joined with horrible roarings from Monte Gibello, as Ætna is called by the Sicilians, exceedingly terrified the whole country. The people abandoned their houses, and fled into the fields, and ultimately to the city of Catania, fifteen miles distant. The convulsion was followed on the 11th, at night, by three eruptions, at little distance from each other, the moun-

tain, in a few minutes after, throwing up flames an hundred yards in height; and amid violent bursts, like peals of ordnance or of thunder, stones or rather rocks were hurled through the air, and fell several miles off, while burning cinders and ashes came down like fiery rain upon the lands. In the meantime there issued a vast torrent of lava, which, dividing into two streams of liquid fire, forced their way down the mountain to Monpileri and Falicchi, and so completely overwhelmed those towns, that not a single house was saved. The burning deluge soon after spread itself to above six miles in breadth; and on the 13th and 14th, destroyed in like manner Campo Rotundo, San Pietro, and Mostorbianco, taking its course towards Catania. On the 14th, an abundance of rain fell; but as it appeared to have no effect upon the lava, the religious appeared everywhere about the city, carrying in procession the reliques of St. Agatha. On the 15th, the air was filled with smoke to suffocation, notwithstanding the prevalence of a violent gusty wind; rain fell in torrents; the sea roared in the most fearful manner, and flowed over all its common boundaries; and the fiery stream was still winding its way, though with great sluggishness, directly upon the city. On the 18th, as the lava was much nearer, the bishop (Cambuchi), followed by the clergy secular and regular, and an infinite number of people, went in solemn procession from Catania, to an altar erected in view of the mountain, and celebrated mass there; and some hope was afforded to the inhabitants when, on the 20th, that branch which seemed most to threaten the city was wholly extinguished, becoming in a few hours hard and rocky, and everywhere having left pyramids of matter in its course. The flames from the mountain, however, were still terrific, and the smoke which accompanied them covered the sky: abundance of great stones were still shot forth, and some of these fell at ten miles' distance

from the eruption, while ashes strewed the city and country, and produced a stifling sensation upon such as ventured forth from the houses. It was now found that *Ætna* had lost nearly a mile of its former height, and that the place whence the fiery streams were vented, was half a mile in compass: the streams consisted evidently of stones and metals melted, the flame upon them being like that of brimstone; and wherever they passed, they buried the earth, melting at once the walls of houses and castles, and carrying trees and every other obstacle along with them. On the 28th, the grand current of lava came close to Catania, insomuch that every one but the persons in authority quitted it; but though the walls of the city were greatly damaged, the stream suddenly turned into the sea, and advanced therein nearly 600 yards. As it mingled with the ocean, it exploded violently, and threw forth volleys of stones in all directions.

In forty days this eruption destroyed 27,000 houses in different towns and villages; and the lava, meeting in its progress a lake of four miles in compass, not only filled it up, but left a positive mountain on the spot; but scarcely any loss of human life occurred throughout the visitation.

REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES, 1685.—By this proceeding, Louis XIV. took from his protestant subjects all those privileges and securities which had been granted by Henri IV.; and the issue was, that he lost the greater part of his artists in silk, lace, and other valuable manufactures, who fled to Prussia, England, and other countries, and enriched them by their skill, to the great detriment of France. In the streets about Soho-square and Clerkenwell, London, are still observable the names of the Huguenots who settled in those parts at the Revocation, and became jewellers, dyers, weavers, &c.; their descendants still carrying on like trades. The father of Sir Samuel Romilly was a Soho jeweller, of Huguenot ancestry.

PROMULGATION OF THE THEORY OF UNIVERSAL GRAVITATION, 1684.—As it is the characteristic of commonplace intellects to attach the greatest importance to whatever is unusual, though often quite undeserving of particular attention, so is it the mark of a powerful mind to perceive in things of usual occurrence how much is to be learned, and to deduce important reflections from circumstances which the generality of men neglect to notice. Mankind had been for ages accustomed to witness the fact, that all bodies fall directly to the ground, the moment support is withdrawn; but no one had ever seen in it anything wonderful. To Newton, however, apples falling, as it were spontaneously, from the trees in the orchard at Woolsthorpe, led him into a train of profound thought, from which ultimately resulted nothing less than a complete discovery of the system of the world. This power, or force, he observed extends to some distance from the surface of the earth; it exists at the tops of the highest mountains; it extends to the highest region of the atmosphere; may it not reach as far as the moon? Again, within the short distances to which observation extends near the surface of the earth, this force does not diminish sensibly as we recede from the earth; but may it not diminish at greater distances? If so, according to what law? Supposing it, as in some cases of the dynamical speculations in which he had been engaged, to decrease as the square of the distance from the centre of the earth, it might be calculated in what degree its intensity would be diminished at the moon, the moon's distance being known. Indeed this calculation might be carried a little farther, and the result subjected to the test of observation. For the actual intensity of gravity at the earth's surface is estimated by the space through which a body falls in one second. By reducing this in the ratio of the squares of the distances from the earth's centre, we should have

of *Fernando Po* was colonized by the British, 1827; and *Aden*, at the mouth of the Red Sea, was purchased by the East India Company of Turkey 1838.

HUDSON'S BAY COLONIZED BY THE ENGLISH, 1669.—This territory is very extensive, and reaches to the North Pole. The Bay was discovered 1610 by Henry Hudson, who commanded a vessel fitted out by the English Russia Company, for the purpose of exploring a north-west passage, and was left by his mutinous crew, with his son and seven other persons, to perish in that inhospitable region. In 1669, Charles II. granted to prince Rupert and a company a charter, which secured to the settlers all the commerce within the entrance of Hudson's Straits, together with all the countries upon the coast; and under this grant the company have held possession up to the present day, excepting from 1697 to 1714, when the settlement was occupied by the French. The northern Indians and Esquimaux inhabit a large portion of the country, and visit for barter the only four settlements of the company (around the bay, which is 750 miles long, and 600 broad), all of which are well fortified. Furs are the staple commodity; and about 1000 English persons are employed to transact the affairs of the colony.

THE BAHAMAS COLONIZED BY THE ENGLISH, 1666.—This group of isles and reefs extends 600 miles; and the isle of St. Salvador was the first land discovered in the New World by Columbus, 1492. The Bahamas were then well peopled with Indians; who were shipped off as slaves to work in the mines of Peru and Mexico, when the Spaniards began their search for gold. In 1629, New Providence was colonized by the English, who remained there till 1641, when the Spaniards drove them out, after murdering the governor; but they returned 1666, and New Providence remained in their hands till 1703, when the French and Spaniards again expelled them. The Bahamas then became a rendezvous for pirates, till Capt. Rogers of the

British navy was established as governor, 1717; and the islands remained quietly in possession of the English until the American war. In 1776, the American commodore Hopkins, with a squadron from Philadelphia, plundered the settlement, and carried off the governor, and in 1781 the Spaniards took possession of all the isles; but they were given up to the British by treaty 1783, and have ever since remained in their possession. Nassau, in New Providence, is the seat of government and centre of commerce; there is a governor, an executive and legislative council of 12, and a house of assembly of 30 members. The Bahamas produce logwood, fustic, green ebony, satinwood, cedar, mastic-wood, and cotton. The shores abound with fish; and there is turtle enough to supply all Europe. The governors have been: 1673, Chillingworth; 1677, Clark; 1684, Lilburne; 1687, Bridges; 1690, Cadwalader Jones; 1694, Trott; 1697, Nicholas Webb; 1700, Elias Haskett, and Ellis Lightfoot; 1704, Birch; 1717, Capt. Woods Rogers; 1721, George Phenney; 1728, Capt. Woods Rogers; 1733, Richard Fitzwilliam; 1788, John Tinker; 1759, William Shirley; 1767, Thomas Shirley; 1774, Montford Brown; 1779, John Maxwell; 1784, James Powell; 1786, John, earl of Dunmore; 1797, John Forbes; 1797, William Dowdeswell; 1801, John Halkett; 1804, Charles Cameron; 1820, Lewis Grant; 1829, Sir J. C. Smith; 1833, B. T. Balfour; 1835, Lieut.-col. William G. Colebrook.

FLAMSTEAD HOUSE (so called after the first astronomer-royal) in Greenwich Park, was erected for an observatory, to be occupied by the astronomer-royal, 1670. The longitudinal distances in England are calculated from the meridian of Greenwich; and in 1833 the Admiralty issued directions for a ball to be henceforward dropped every day from the top of a pole on the Observatory, at one o'clock p.m. solar time, that the vessels in the river, and the people of the

docks, may regulate and rate their chronometers.

THE HABEAS CORPUS ACT was passed 1679. This bulwark of British liberty enacts, that if any person be imprisoned by order of any court, or of the queen herself, he may have a writ of *habeas corpus* delivered to his detainer, commanding him to bring him before the judges of the Queen's Bench or Common Pleas, to ascertain the cause of the committal, and its justice. The prisoner must be brought up within 20 days at furthest; so that no Venetian secrecy in the case of incarcerated persons can occur in England. The title of the act originates in the commencing words of the order, which, notwithstanding its various forms, begins, 'Habeas Corpus, ad faciendum, subjiciendum, recipiendum,' &c. In times of great political excitement, the operation of this act is usually suspended; but this suspension only prevents persons committed from being bailed, tried, or discharged, during the suspension, leaving to the committing magistrate all the responsibility attending on illegal imprisonment.

THE ROYAL SOCIETY, for the encouragement of natural philosophy, was incorporated by Charles II., 1662. Everything connected with physical science is professed to be investigated by this society, new discoveries registered, errors corrected, and new experiments encouraged.

TEA FIRST IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND from Holland, and used as a medicine or cordial, 1666.

THE PENNY POST (the origin of the twopenny and threepenny) first set up in London by Murray, an upholsterer, to carry letters short distances, 1668.

THE FIGURE OF BRITANNIA was first

used on the copper coins in this reign. Charles is said to have ordered it, to commemorate the fine person of Louisa de Querouaille, whom he created duchess of Portsmouth; but there is little doubt that he copied the design from the brass coins of Antoninus Pius, some of which are still to be seen in the British Museum, wherein a female figure sitting holds the sceptre, surrounded by the word Britannia.

FRANKING OF LETTERS first claimed by members of parliament 1660, but not allowed until 1784. The privilege was abolished by the penny-post act of 1840.

INSURANCE OFFICES, to prevent loss by fire, first instituted in London, 1667. The two great objects of insurance are houses with their furniture and chattels, and ships with their cargoes; and the latter are effected by the company in London known as 'Lloyd's.' However advantageous, insurance, whether of ships or houses, is not without its evils. It procures security, but is at the same time apt to generate carelessness, and occasionally fraud. Those whose ships are insured cannot be expected to be in all respects so attentive to their condition and to the fitness of the master, as if they had to bear the whole risk of the adventure. And the mischief does not stop here; for it is a fact established by judicial records, that ships and goods have been sent to sea *in order* that they might be cast away, and a profit be made at the expense of the insurers. In like manner, houses have been burned by fraudulent tenants, who had previously removed their insured goods, in order that they might claim an amount, for which they had been insured far above their value.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

THE POPEDOM.—CLEMENT IX., Giulio Rospigliosi, of a high family, succeeded Alexander VII., 1667. He displayed a conciliatory spirit, hushed for a time the controversy of Jansenists and Jesuits, and settled the

long-pending dispute between Rome and Portugal, on the right of nomination to bishoprics, by confirming the prelates appointed by Pedro II. He sent assistance to the Venetians for the defence of Dalmatia and of

Candia against the Turks ; and the news of the loss of the latter is affirmed to have caused his death, December, 1669. During his brief pontificate, Clement spent large sums to improve Rome in its buildings, streets, and sewers ; his style of living was princely, and his bounty to the poor unbounded ; and his decease was regarded and mourned as a public calamity. CLEMENT X., Emilio Altieri, was next elected, at the age of 80, January, 1670. He was a meek and pacific pontiff ; and associated with himself in the secular government, cardinal Paluzzi, his distant relative, to whom at his death he left his fortune, 1676. INNOCENT XI., Benedetto Odescalchi of Como, succeeded ; a man of great firmness and courage, austere in morals, and inflexible in resolution. He took pains to reduce the pomp and luxury of his court ; and to evince his hatred of nepotism, he suffered his only nephew to reside at Rome in a private condition. But his austerity made him enemies, and his dislike of the then very powerful Jesuits still more. The principal event of his pontificate was his quarrel with Louis XIV., on the subject of the privileges enjoyed by ambassadors at Rome, which he had resolved to abolish. The houses of those foreign residents were in general little other than places of refuge for criminals of all classes ; but Innocent, with the conscience of an honest man, agreed to wait until the then possessors of such immunities should be succeeded by others. The death of Marshal d'Estrées, the French ambassador, however, 1687, brought the question to a crisis ; and when Louis sent the marquis of Lavardin as his successor, accompanied by a large military retinue, desiring him to maintain at Rome 'the rights and dignity of France,' the pontiff allowed him to return to his country, after a residence in the Capitol of 18 months, without once giving him an audience. Louis, in revenge, seized Avignon, and threat-

ened to send a fleet to ravage the Roman coast ; but Innocent paid no attention to his menaces. Although the extravagant portion of diplomatic privilege was thus abolished, the 'district immunities' of foreign ambassadors (*i. e.* their magisterial rule over the streets situated in their respective quarters) were continued until the invasion of Rome by Napoleon. Innocent, soon after passing censures against Molinos and the Quietists, died, aged 78, 1689.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV.—The reign of Louis XIV. is the longest in French annals ; extending over 72 years, from 1643 to 1715, and comprising the period from Charles I. to George I. in English history. Louis succeeded his father, Louis XIII., at the age of five ; and Anne of Austria, his mother, as regent, selected cardinal Mazarin for her minister. France was engaged at the time in wars with Germany and Spain ; and it was in the former country that the prince of Condé first displayed his military capacity, by bringing the Austrians to request a peace. The civil faction of the Fronde broke out 1649. De Retz, afterwards a cardinal, opposed Mazarin in his attempt to levy some taxes ; and as he was supported by the duke of Longueville, and other powerful noblemen, arms were resorted to, and Mazarin and the royal family driven from the capital. Condé played a dubious part during the dispute, and passing into Spain, levied a force with which he marched upon Paris ; but soon after, the king and Mazarin were recalled, and De Retz imprisoned, 1653. Louis, when of age, 1654, commanded an army against the Spaniards, who were led on by his rebellious subject and relative, Condé : the result was favourable to the allied English and French, and Dunkirk being taken by them was given to the English. In 1657, the emperor Ferdinand III. died, and Mazarin intrigued to prevent the election of his son Leopold, and to obtain the imperial dignity for Louis XIV. But though Louis him-

self repaired to Metz (his army being cantoned in that neighbourhood), neither his bribes nor the threats of the cardinal availed; and Leopold was unanimously elected by the diet, 1658. Hence the bitter animosity of Louis against Leopold, which lasted half a century, and was the cause of three long and bloody wars. Meantime peace was made with Spain 1659 by Mazarin, at the Bidassoa; on which occasion a marriage was agreed on between Louis and Maria-Theresa, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain, and a free pardon was granted by Louis to the prince of Condé. Louis always behaved to his queen, who was little other than imbecile in mind, with considerate regard, but resorted to the society of a succession of mistresses; of whom Mademoiselle de la Vallière, Madame de Montespan, and Madame de Maintenon are the most known. In 1661, Mazarin died, aged 59; and from that moment Louis took the government entirely into his own hands. He imprisoned Fouquet, the finance minister, for life, on the charge of peculation, and appointed Colbert in his room, an able man, to whom much of the splendour of his reign is attributable. The ruling principle of Louis was pure despotism; '*l'état c'est moi*' was his favourite expression; and completing the work begun by Richelieu, he changed France from a feudal monarchy to an absolute one. He enticed the high nobility from their rural mansions, attracted them to court, employed them about his person, gave them pensions, or placed them in his regular army, and completely broke down their former spirit of independence. With regard to the Church, he distributed its temporalities to his favourites, both clerical and lay, bestowed livings and pensions and abbacies in commendam on courtly abbés, and thus obtained a subservient clergy; and as respects the pope, twice he braved that holy father through his ambassador, in the Capitol itself; twice he

seized upon Avignon, and twice obliged the papal court to make him humble apologies. The parliament was also subdued, like the nobility and clergy, by his absolute will; and to consolidate his power, he first adopted that system of centralization in the administration, which has been followed and rendered more complete by the various French governments (even Napoleon's) that have succeeded each other till our own days, and which, notwithstanding its civil contests, renders France the most compact power in Europe. The action of the executive residing in Paris is felt at every step by every individual in the most remote corners of the kingdom. In 1665 Louis declared war against the English, in order to succour his allies the Dutch; but in 1667 a peace was concluded at Breda between England, Holland, France, and Denmark. The Spaniards not being willing to grant Louis satisfaction in relation to his pretensions to the Netherlands in right of his queen, the daughter of Philip IV., who died 1665, he entered Flanders, and, after taking Charleroi, and other places, made himself master of Franche Comté, 1666; but he concluded a peace with Spain at Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, by which he restored the latter, but kept the towns he had taken in the Netherlands. He seized Lorraine 1669, and in 1672 again declared war against the Dutch; and the latter being everywhere defeated, the emperor, Spain, and the elector of Brandenburg were alarmed, and united against France. In 1673, Turenne rendered himself master of most of the places in the duchy of Cleves and Juliers; a second time conquered Franche Comté; the Spaniards were defeated at Rousillon by the count de Schomberg; Turenne vanquished the elector of Brandenburg, and obliged the Germans to abandon Alsace; and M. de Quesne beat the Spanish and Dutch fleets in two engagements, in the second of which the brave admiral De Ruyter lost his life, 1676. About the same

time France declared war against Denmark, in behalf of the Swedes ; and the allies, commanded by the prince of Orange, were defeated at Cassel by the king's brother. At length a peace was concluded at Nimeguen between France and Holland, 1678. Louis having caused Genoa to be bombarded, the doge, accompanied by four senators, was obliged to go to Paris 1685, to make the king satisfaction. In that year Louis revoked the edict of Nantes ; and all the efforts of the great Colbert to encourage French industry were rendered abortive by that cruel and fanatical act, of which the revolt of the Cévennes, and the war of extermination which followed, were remote consequences. (*Concluded in the Reign of Anne*).

RUSSIA UNDER FEODOR III.—This prince (Theodore) succeeded his father Alexis 1676, and displayed many virtues. His reign was brief and tranquil, and, because tranquil, supplying nothing for the historian to record. Alas ! that history should be only the chronicle of the disturbances and changes of the world, of the follies and the crimes of mankind. Feodor, after a reign, throughout which he had exerted himself for the good of his subjects, died in 1682, having appointed his youngest brother, Peter, his successor, in preference to his next brother Iwan, who was subject to fits of epilepsy.

SWEDEN UNDER CHARLES XI.—He succeeded his father, Charles X. 1660, at five years old ; and the queen his mother governed with great wisdom during his minority, causing him at the same time to be educated carefully in the art of war, in Greek, Latin, and most of the modern languages. After his coronation 1674, Christiern V. of Denmark attacked the kingdom ; but Charles gained the battles of Halmstadt, Lunden, and Lands-croon, and recovered Pomerania from him at the treaty of Nimeguen, 1678. He also obliged Christiern, who had seized the person and dominions of the duke of Holstein Gottorp, to set

that prince at liberty, and restore his duchy ; and afterwards observed an exact neutrality with respect to the wars of Europe. He was a prince of great penetration, frugality, and industry ; but proud, selfish, and tyrannical. His harsh conduct to his queen, by which he occasioned her death, deservedly obtained him many enemies ; and he lost the affections of his subjects at large, by depriving the senate of their share in the government, and by erecting an arbitrary court, called the Chamber of Liquidations, by which multitudes were reduced to poverty. He died, aged 42, 1697.

DENMARK AND NORWAY UNDER CHRISTIERN V.—Frederick III. was succeeded 1670 by his son Christiern V., who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen ; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden by Charles XI. of Sweden. Christiern, however, obstinately continued the war, till he was defeated entirely at Lands-croon ; after which, being in a manner abandoned by his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty on the terms prescribed by France at Nimeguen, 1678. Christiern did not even now desist from his military attempts, such was his passion for 'glory,' and at last he became the ally and subsidiary of Louis XIV., who was then threatening Europe with chains ; and after a vast variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, he died, aged 54, 1699.

PORTUGAL UNDER PEDRO II.—Our last notice of Portugal alluded to the revolution in which Affonso VI. was dethroned by his brother Don Pedro, 1667 ; the latter, affecting to act merely for the good of the nation, taking the modest title of regent, and (urged doubtless by the same patriotic feeling) marrying his deposed brother's wife. For 15 years Pedro ruled ostensibly for Affonso ; at

whose decease in 1688, he assumed the dignity of king, as Pedro II. During his subsequent reign of 28 years, he acted with great prudence and vigour, kept Portugal in comparative peace, and obtained from Charles II. of Spain an acknowledgment of its independence. He died 1706.

SPAIN UNDER CHARLES II.—He was son of Philip IV., and succeeded him 1665. Though twice married, he had no issue; and his capricious conduct in the matter of appointing a successor, gave rise after his death to what is known as the succession war. By a will made 1698, he constituted the archduke Charles of Austria, son of the emperor Leopold, his last queen's nephew, heir of his dominions; but in 1700, through the intrigues of Louis XIV., he revoked that instrument, and declared Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis, his successor. Charles died that year, aged 39, and was the last of the elder branch of the house of Austria that reigned in Spain.

GERMANY UNDER LEOPOLD I.—On the death of Ferdinand III. 1658, his son Leopold had to contend with Louis XIV. respecting the succession, the latter having gained over four of the electors to his side; but the decision was in favour of Leopold, already king of Hungary and Bohemia. His first labour was to put an end to a spirit of discontent which had long subsisted among his Hungarian nobles; to aid which purpose, his able general Montecucculi concluded a truce with the Turks who had overrun Hungary, after beating them at St. Gothard. The Hungarians, however, being chiefly protestants, under the pretence that Leopold had deserted them by accepting the Austrian throne, made a secret treaty with the Turks to enter their country again, and deliver them from the tyranny of their popish rulers. The plot was discovered, and counts Frangipani and Tekeli, and other leaders, were executed; whereon the malcontents broke out into open insurrection under Emeric Tekeli, son of the

count who had suffered death. In 1682 Tekeli was acknowledged by the Porte as prince of Hungary, and tributary of the sultan, whose vizir, Kara-Mustafa, entered the field with 150,000 men, to which Tekeli joined 40,000 Hungarians; and these combined forces, having defeated the Austrians at Raab, advanced upon Vienna, 1683. Had expedition been used, that capital must have fallen; but the duke of Lorraine, the Austrian general, obtained the aid of the heroic Sobieski of Poland, and with 90,000 Germans and Poles arrived, two months after the investment, on the heights of the Calemberg, which command a view of Vienna, around which the wide-spreading tents of the Ottomans were seen entrenched. On September 12, the battle was fought, the Turks were defeated, and Vienna, and perhaps all eastern Europe, saved from Moslim sway. Hungary was cleared of the Turks, after several hard-fought campaigns. The court of Vienna now took strong measures to prevent any recurrence of Hungarian insurrection; and at the diet of Presburg of 1687 the crown of Hungary was declared to be no longer elective, but hereditary in the Austrian male line. Transylvania submitted to Leopold unconditionally. The Turkish war was at length concluded by a great victory gained by prince Eugene 1697, near Zenta in Hungary, and the peace of Carlowitz. Leopold sustained three wars against Louis XIV.; the first ending by the treaty of Nimeguen, 1678, the second by the peace of Ryswick, 1697, and of the third, respecting the Spanish succession, Leopold did not live to see the close. It was in the second of those contests that Louvois, the French minister, ordered the generals 'to strike terror among the enemies of France;' to which they responded by committing the most frightful atrocities in the Palatinate and Piedmont. Catinat, who commanded the French on the banks of the Po, had instructions to destroy everything—

man, woman, child, buildings, the fruits of the earth! and when, after considerable devastation, he, with some degree of feeling, communicated to the brutal minister the deplorable state of the innocent people, he received for answer 'Burn and destroy, and burn again!' In matters of a domestic kind, Leopold ever displayed a desire to benefit his country, and to conciliate his neighbours; all of whom were willing to aid him, as a good-tempered prince, whose talents were not shining enough to compete with the subtle policy of Louis XIV. Leopold added Brunswick to the electorates, making it the ninth; whereon its duke, Ernest Augustus, became the first elector of Hanover, 1692. He favoured the claim of the elector of Brandenburg to the title of king of Prussia, 1701; and he established a permanent diet of the empire, attended not by the electors in person, but by their representatives. Almost his last act was constituting the duke of Marlborough a prince of the empire for his victory at Blenheim; and he died, aged 65, 1705.

POLAND UNDER JOHN III. (SOBIESKI).—This illustrious character was son of one of the palatines of Poland, and, after a military education at Paris, was made marshal of the Polish armies, and palatine of Cracovia, by Casimir V. His success at Choczyn against the Turks, caused him, in an elective monarchy, to be regarded as the fittest successor to the throne; which he accordingly mounted on the death of Michael, 1674. During a reign of 22 years, he acted with unusual prudence, talent, and heroism; restoring the dignity and importance of Poland, and the prosperity of its people. His formidable enemies, the Turks, he at length incapacitated from injuring him farther, by marching, 1683, to the relief of Vienna, then invested by their army. So great was the terror of his name, that the Moslems began to fly at his approach; and being compelled to raise the siege, they were driven back by the con-

queror into their own territory, with the loss of the sacred standard of the prophet, which Sobieski sent to the pope with these words, 'I came, I saw—God hath conquered.' Towards the close of his life, Sobieski witnessed that same spirit of disaffection revive, notwithstanding all his generous labours, which had desolated Poland in former reigns; and it was in vain that the paternal king remonstrated with his headstrong nobles, who (swayed by those principles which must necessarily actuate the great, where the throne is elective—each family contending which shall be greatest) cared not what civil injury they produced, so long as their individual advancement was secured. In the midst of that rising storm which was eventually to burst and overwhelm his country, Sobieski, regretted by all but the factious among his subjects, and respected by every other civilized nation, died in his capital of Warsaw, aged 72, 1696.

PERSIA UNDER SULIMAN.—He succeeded his father, Abbas II., 1666, and ruled till his decease in 1694, without anything for the historian to commemorate, beyond that sufficiently remarkable occurrence in Persian annals, the passing of a twenty-eight years' reign in peace.

DELHI UNDER AURANGZEB.—That *might is right* in the succession of Asiatic sovereigns, and that all ties human and divine are even to this hour spurned, on occasion of a vacant throne, in the despotic and semi-barbaric nations of the East, are well known facts; but there have been few oriental rulers who have so awfully bathed their hands in the blood of their nearest relatives to reach the object of their ambition, as Aurangzeb. On immuring his parent, Shah Jehan, in a prison, 1658, he assumed the name of Alemgir, and commenced his reign by an attempt to extirpate the Hindu faith, and compel all his subjects to receive the Islam. After destroying the Brahmical temples, he levied a capitation tax on every Hindu; but the feudatory chiefs

of Rajputana successfully resisted the impost. He then turned his attention to conquest; and marching southwards, overran Golconda, which had revolted, and added both it and Bijapur to his empire. The Dekhin, Visapore, and nearly the whole Indian peninsula at length fell to his arms; and the only new power which arose to compensate for those overthrown by Aurangzeb, was Mahratta, which was declared independent by Siva-ji, 1651. The measure of Aurangzeb's iniquities was filled up by his commanding a physician to poison his imprisoned father 1695, lest a party favourable to his restoration should gain strength; but he was evidently repaid by remorse of conscience, or by fear of the designs of his own children; as he would never after sleep anywhere but in the camp, surrounded by his guards. Notwithstanding his atrocities, this Great Mongul was mild in manners, and beloved by his people; and he died regretted by them, after a long reign, 1707.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER CHARLES II.—Upon the marriage of Charles II. with the infanta of Portugal, he received as part of her dower the Portuguese settlement of Bombay. This was in 1668 transferred by the king to the India Company; and it now forms the nucleus of one of the three great presidencies of British India,—which are Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.

CHINA UNDER KANG-HI, &c.—Kang-hi succeeded his father Shunchi, founder of the Manchu dynasty of Ta-tsing, 1661; and during one of the longest reigns on record (62 years), extended the authority of the empire over western Tartary, to the confines of Turkey. Kang-hi encouraged the residence of all such Jesuit missionaries at Peking as were acquainted with mathematics and astronomy; and it was then that Christianity made so rapid a spread in China as to alarm the successor of Kang-hi, Yung-ching, who on his accession banished the Jesuits from the empire.

Kang-hi died 1723. From the expulsion of the Jesuits by Yung-ching, 1724, to the present time, (save during a portion of Kien Lung's reign,) no Europeans have been allowed to reside within the walls of any Chinese town; and traders to the empire have been hitherto restricted to the port and factory of Kwantung (Canton).

HUNGARY UNDER TEKELI.—During the whole period of Austrian sway in Hungary, from Ferdinand I. 1527, the Turks had taken advantage of the hatred of the people to the German yoke, and, by collusion with the nobles, had gradually obtained possession, at the period of the forced abdication of Bethlen Gabor, 1624, of the finest parts of the kingdom. At length count Emerich Tekeli, an Hungarian noble, whose father had aided the malcontent counts Frangipani and Seurin in an unsuccessful insurrection against the Austrian government, induced Abaffi, Turkish voyvode of Transylvania, to lend him troops, wherewith he joined the sultan Mohammed IV. in besieging Vienna, 1683. After the saving of that capital by the Poles, Tekeli turned Moslim, and, with singular audacity, induced the revolutionary nobles to acknowledge him king of Hungary. A reverse soon followed; the Turks, the chief supporters of the adventurer, were beaten; and the count, being accused of treachery, was carried by them in irons to Adrianople, where with great difficulty he proved his innocence. The sultan, on the death of Abaffi, made Tekeli prince of Transylvania; but the Austrians so molested him, that he eventually fled to Constantinople, and died there, a Christian again, 1705, aged 47. The treaty of Carlowitz, 1699, delivered Hungary and Transylvania, and that of Passarowitz, 1718, the Banat, from the Turkish yoke. The fatal civil wars and insurrections ceased in 1711; and the house of Austria has ever since remained in undisturbed possession of the country. But though its German sovereigns have been desirous of doing everything to improve

the condition of the great mass of the people, the nobles have been unwilling to concede so much ; and most Hungarians, out of their country, influenced by this aristocratic agitation, though so much to their own injury, are apt to speak lightly of their lenient masters. As with the Hungarians, so is it with the Poles, and every other national body formerly enjoying an independence of foreign masters ; however inferior in wealth and prospects their ancient condition. They sigh for a 'liberty' lower in value, as respects its consequent comfort, than regulated negro slavery ; and, like the restless Medea, they weep to return to a country, which they learn, from their affliction, that they have betrayed.

SCOTLAND UNDER CHARLES II.—From the instant of Cromwell's decease, the government of Scotland was at a stand ; and general Monk, who had constantly hoped every little change of affairs would bring about the restoration of monarchy, failed not to improve the opportunity, when Richard Cromwell resigned his power. Without stating his design to any one, he marched the army he had under him to London. So changed had the long parliament become in character, that Monk's unceremonious refusal to obey its ordinances passed almost without notice ; and a dissolution being agreed to, and a new parliament summoned, the general obtained leave, May 8, 1660, to proclaim king Charles, and to recal him from exile. Having received the monarch on his landing at Dover, and accompanied him to London, the general was requested by Charles to send down lord Glencairn in his place to Scotland, and to remain himself about his person ; and the Restoration having been in like manner proclaimed at Edinburgh, the earl of Middleton, who was chosen to succeed Glencairn, opened a new parliament there, Jan. 1, 1661. The members of this assembly discovered a very compliant spirit : they granted a revenue of 40,000*l.* to Charles for life ; abolished

every act which had passed for a long series of years, tending to restrict the royal prerogative ; the solemn league and covenant was indirectly pronounced to have been treasonable ; and their other acts prepared the way for the restoration of episcopacy. In this extremity, the presbyterians sent James Sharpe, one of their ministers, to conciliate Charles ; but he, dazzled by the splendour of the English court, and finding episcopacy a far less frightful monster, close, than he had supposed it, at once accepted the dignity of archbishop of St. Andrew's, and returned to paralyse his constituents with the news. The king soon after proceeded to take vengeance on the covenanters by means of this parliament, and the marquis of Argyle, and James Guthrie were tried, condemned, and, certainly unjustifiably, executed ; episcopacy was restored throughout Scotland ; 350 parishes (above a third of the kingdom) were declared vacant, 1662, by the ejection of presbyterian pastors ; and the earl of Lauderdale, who succeeded Middleton, supplied them with episcopal clergymen, and erected a high-commission court for the destruction of conventicles. The presbyterians hereupon took up arms ; and a party of them surprised Sir James Turner's force at Ayr, and took him prisoner. Their number increasing to 2,000, they continued their march towards Edinburgh, professing submission to the king, but desiring the re-establishment of presbytery and their ministers. The people of the city, however, not rising, they retired to the Pentland hills, where general Dalziel made their leaders prisoners, and hanged them ; and the bishops and council thereupon behaved with a rigour which must be regarded as the remote cause of the final triumph of presbyterianism. Those who professed that form were hunted like wild beasts, burned, shot, hanged, and tortured ; until the friends of episcopacy themselves compassionated their sufferings, and Charles commanded a stop to be put to such barbarities.

The letter sent by the king for this purpose was alleged to have been kept back from the council by Sharpe, until one M'Kail, a minister, had been put to the rack, under which he expired; and whether or not the assertion were true, the archbishop was marked from that day for destruction by the covenanters. At length, after his life had been attempted by one Mitchell, who fired a pistol at him as he was passing in his coach, he was, at Lauderdale's suggestion, removed from the council, 1666, Leighton, bishop of Dunblane, an extremely moderate prelate, supplying his place. Measures of the most conciliatory kind were adopted; the covenanters were only required to subscribe an engagement disclaiming all intention of rebellion; and such officers as had permitted their soldiers to commit any enormities, were dismissed from command. Still the presbyterians would not advance one step towards a reconciliation with episcopacy, which they openly denounced as 'a rag of the woman of Babylon;' and though Leighton, who was now made archbishop of Glasgow, restored many of their ministers to vacant parishes, the most violent gloried in the name of covenanters, and persisted in preaching in conventicles against 'the rag.' At length Mitchell, who had before attempted the life of Sharpe, was seized with two loaded pistols upon him, at a moment that he was eyeing the prelate very narrowly, as if again purposing his destruction; and on confessing himself the author of the former outrage, he was tried, tortured, and executed, 1678. Lauderdale upon this resolved to adopt measures more in conformity with his original plan; and, issuing a peremptory command for the suppression of conventicles, he compelled all landholders to give bond, engaging under heavy penalties to prevent covenant-preachers coming upon their estates. On such a refused compliance Highland soldiers were to be billeted. The severity of this proceeding soon occasioned an appeal by the nobility to Charles; and

the bonds and Highlanders had just been in consequence withdrawn, when a fresh cause for severity arose. On May 3, 1679, a party of presbyterians, headed by one Balfour, were waylaying on the road to St. Andrews, with a view to chastise him, an officer belonging to the council, one Carmichael, who had performed some duty with severity; and while looking out for their prey, they were surprised at seeing archbishop Sharpe approach in his coach, accompanied by very few attendants. They immediately stopped the horses, fell upon the prelate, dragged him from the vehicle, tore him from the arms of his daughter, who interposed with cries and tears, and piercing him with redoubled wounds, left him dead in the road, and immediately dispersed themselves. This sanguinary deed, however long threatened, perpetrated as it was at the moment when one great and last effort had been resolved on by the council to exterminate the covenanters, was not likely to weaken that determination; and so severe were the measures now put in practice, that the presbyterians of every class took up arms, and defeated the first episcopal general, Graham of Claverhouse, who dared to attack them. Thousands hereupon joined their standard; and on their marching in a body to Hamilton, the king's troops fled from Glasgow. The presbyterians upon this took possession of the town, and dispossessed the established clergy; and the militia being hastily embodied, the king's natural son, the duke of Monmouth, assumed the command, and marched to meet the insurgents. On the 22nd of June, 1679, an engagement took place at Bothwell Bridge, which the presbyterians bravely defended for a considerable time. At length, their ammunition failing, they were forced to retreat; but were ultimately overtaken, surrounded, and made to lay down their arms, after losing 700 killed, and 1200 prisoners. Fines, banishment, and imprisonment, were now inflicted upon the prisoners, many of them were hanged, while 800

were shipped for Barbadoes, and perished in the voyage; but at last Monmouth obtained leave to pursue a milder course, and Lauderdale was superseded in the government by James, duke of York, afterwards James II. The duke's first act was the administering a test to all persons in office, civil, military, and ecclesiastical, in which the king's supremacy was maintained, the covenant renounced, and the doctrine of passive obedience assented to; and upon Argyle's refusal to subscribe it, he was tried, and condemned to death, but escaped from prison to Holland. Shortly after, Cameron and Cargill, two covenant preachers, having at the head of insurgent parties publicly excommunicated the king, renounced their allegiance to him, and called on all others to do the same, Cameron was killed by the king's troops in an action at Airmoss, and Cargill was taken and hanged. The duke's administration was of short duration; and on his return to London by sea, the vessel struck upon a sand bank,

and was lost. The duke escaped in the barge; but Hyde, his brother-in-law, and many other persons of rank and quality were drowned. The afterwards renowned Marlborough was one who escaped. Gordon, earl of Aberdeen, succeeded the duke of York as chancellor, or regent, 1682, and pursued the plan of suppressing dissent by the test oath; a new clause being added thereto, requiring the killing of Sharpe to be acknowledged murder. Many, but more especially women, on refusing to subscribe to this point, were some hanged and others drowned; Graham of Claverhouse was especially severe to all recusants on the same ground, in the south-west counties; and the earl of Perth, who, on coming over to episcopacy from presbyterianism, soon after succeeded Gordon as regent, in like manner consigned to the torture Carstairs, a preacher, Baillie of Jerviswood, Hume, and other men of some estate. In the midst of these severities, which it is said he was again about to stay, Charles II. died, February 6, 1685.

EMINENT PERSONS.

GEORGE MONK, son of Sir Thomas, was born at Potheridge, Devon, and was in the expeditions to the Isle of Rhé and Flanders. On the outbreak of the civil war, he took a command among the royalists against the Scots; and in the Irish rebellion was made governor of Dublin, but was subsequently surprised before Nantwich by Fairfax, and sent prisoner to Hull. Conceiving the king's cause hopeless, he obtained his release by subscribing the covenant, 1646; and Cromwell placed such reliance on him, that he left him at the head of the army in Scotland, after what is called 'the invasion' of Charles II. In 1653 he was united with Blake and Dean in the command of the sea forces, and was next appointed governor of Scotland. When his popularity there had somewhat roused the jealousy of Cromwell, he received a quizzical letter from the usurper, concluding with these words: 'There be

that tell me there is a certain cunning fellow in Scotland, called George Monk, who is said to lie in wait to introduce Charles Stuart; I pray you use your diligence to apprehend him, and send him to me.' After Cromwell's death, Monk congratulated his successor; but when Richard resigned, he marched to London, called a free parliament, and effected the restoration of the exiled king, 1660. He was now made knight of the garter, privy counsellor, master of the horse, first lord of the treasury, and duke of Albemarle, with a pension of 7000*l*. He afterwards, with Rupert, contributed to the defeat of the Dutch fleet; during the plague, the king, who retired to Oxford, intrusted him with the care of London; and when the city was burned in his absence, 1666, the people, fond of their favourite hero, exclaimed 'that if he had been there, the dreadful calamity would have been avoided.' He died

of dropsy, aged 62, 1670. The duke had married a blacksmith's daughter, who had gained his affections by attending him when confined in the Tower; and by her he left an only son, who became governor of Jamaica. She was a woman of so violent a temper, that the general, accustomed as he was to the noise of artillery, used to own that he trembled at the sound of her voice.

EDWARD HYDE, born at Dinton, Wilts, left Exeter College, Oxford, for the Middle Temple; and in the long parliament, 1640, sat for Saltash. Though on the liberal side, his respect for church and king would not permit him to assent to the expulsion of the bishops; and though one of the committee against Straford, he opposed the attainder when he perceived the vindictive animosity of his accusers. With equal patriotism he inveighed against the ordinance for raising the militia against the king; and when his moderation was suspected, 1642, he withdrew to the king at York. Upon the ruin of the royal cause, he retired to Jersey, and wrote his 'History of the Great Rebellion;' and returning with Charles II. at the Restoration, was made lord chancellor, and earl of Clarendon. In his high office, while he wished to restore the prerogatives of the crown, he was zealously employed in establishing the liberties of the people. Envy, however, is the attendant on greatness; and the elevation of his daughter to be the wife of the duke of York contributed much to his downfall. He was first attacked 1663 by lord Bristol, who exhibited against him 16 charges of high treason; his magnificent house was made a ground of accusation against him; and the king was driven to dismiss him from office, 1667. He avoided death by crossing to Rouen, where he continued till his decease, at the age of 66, 1674. His daughter Anne, who married James II., when duke of York, gave to England two queens; her daughters Mary, the wife of William III., and queen Anne.

JOHN WILMOTT, educated at Wadham College, Oxford, succeeded his father as earl of Rochester. He was a soldier on board the English fleet which attacked the Dutch squadron at Bergen, 1665, and behaved with distinguished bravery; but he subsequently pursued a career of dissipation, which put an end to his life at 32, 1680. He was an important personage in the licentious court of Charles, originating many of the early measures of the reign, and he displayed poetical talents of a high order; but the effusions of his muse were usually immoral in tendency.

SIR WILLIAM TEMPLE, son of the master of the rolls in Ireland, quitted Emanuel College, Cambridge, on account of the usurpation, and lived in retirement in Ireland till the Restoration; from which time, till his relinquishment of public life, he acted as a diplomatist for Charles II., being chiefly instrumental in forming the triple league, 1668, between England, Holland, and Sweden, and in negotiating the marriage of the princess Mary and the prince of Orange. His letters and miscellanies show him to have been a man of genius and knowledge of the world; but they are tinged with deistical sentiments. He died, aged 71, 1700.

GEORGE VILLIERS, son and successor of the duke of Buckingham assassinated by Felton, was a short time at Christchurch, Oxford, and shared the danger of Charles II. at Worcester. Though he married the daughter of the republican lord Fairfax, Charles made him master of the horse at his restoration; but he was a restless intriguing man, and often in disgrace both with the king and the parliament. He died of a cold, caught by sitting on the grass after hunting, aged 61, 1688. He is chiefly famous as a dramatic poet; and his best production, 'The Rehearsal,' very cleverly satirizes the playwrights of his day.

JEAN BAPTISTE COLBERT, son of a Paris silk-mercator, was early placed in the office of the minister Mazarin.

Louis XIV. made him finance minister; and in that important post he settled the French trade with India on a firm basis. He embellished the capital when made superintendent of buildings; and the palaces of the Tuilleries, Versailles, the Louvre, and Fontainebleau arose at his suggestion. His other establishments were, the academy of painting and sculpture, the academy of sciences, and Cassini's observatory; besides which, he completed the famous canal by which the two seas are united, 1680, and reformed the law courts. In 1672 he was made prime minister; and in that capacity restored the navy, commerce, and finances of the kingdom, encouraged literature, and gave that weight to French interests, which tended to the preservation of continental tranquillity, by checking the undue power of Germany. Wisely regarding high connexions as more permanently beneficial to a family than a momentary popularity, he allied his six sons and three daughters with the most powerful families of France; and died, aged 64, 1683.

ANTHONY ASHLEY COOPER, born at Winborne St. Giles, Dorset, studied at Exeter College, Oxford, and was member for Tewkesbury 1640. He took a command in the parliament army, but openly accused Cromwell of tyranny; and being one of the twelve sent by the commons to solicit the return of Charles II., the king, on his restoration, more mindful of the services of his enemies, than of those of his friends, made him earl of Shaftesbury, and at length lord chancellor. His enmity to the duke of York occasioned his removal and imprisonment; and to avoid an attainder for treason, he escaped to the continent, and died there, aged 62, 1683. Shaftesbury was a man of little fidelity and great licentiousness, and in allusion to the latter, Charles having once said to him, 'I verily believe, Shaftesbury, thou art the wickedest fellow in my dominions,' the earl with some truth replied,

'Of a *subject*, may it please your majesty, I believe I am.'

ISAAC BARROW, son of a London linendraper, was educated at the Charter House; but gave no pre-*sent*age there of his future celebrity, being chiefly remarkable for fighting, though remarkably small and slender in person. So much anxiety indeed did his father suffer on this account, that he once declared, 'if it should please God to take any one of his children, he hoped it would be Isaac.' When at Trinity College, Cambridge, however, his surprising mathematical talents were soon displayed; and he was in 1649 elected fellow of Trinity, in spite of his refusal to subscribe the covenant. In 1655 he engaged in a scheme of foreign travel; and on his return, he obtained orders from a bishop (then a difficulty), and was elected to the Greek chair at Cambridge, 1660, and in 1663, appointed first Lucasian professor of mathematics. Resolved on henceforth devoting himself to divinity, he resigned the latter chair to the great Newton, 1669; and in 1672 Charles II. nominated him to the mastership of Trinity College, observing, 'that he had bestowed it on the best scholar in England.' On this occasion, with similar conscientiousness, Barrow had a clause in his patent of master allowing him to marry erased, because incompatible with the intentions of the founder. In 1675 he was chosen vice-chancellor, but died prematurely of fever aged 47, 1677. As a theologian, Barrow is distinguished for depth and copiousness of thought; and he so exhausted the subjects on which he treated in his long, and somewhat periphrastic, though admirable sermons, that Charles II. used to call him 'an unfair preacher,' for leaving nothing to be said after him. His mathematical acumen, little inferior to that of Newton, was displayed in his investigations concerning infinitesimals; of which his 'incremental triangle' is a highly ingenious specimen.

NICOLAS MALEBRANCHE, born at Paris, was small in person, deformed,

and extremely delicate in health ; but he eventually went through a course of divinity at the Sorbonne, and at 22 was admitted a monk of the Oratoire. The perusal of Descartes' treatise 'De Homine,' led to his devotion of ten years to the examination of the Cartesian system ; and he at length acquired the reputation of surpassing all his contemporaries in a knowledge of its true spirit and tendency. The result was his 'Recherche de la Verité,' on which his fame rests. Notwithstanding the frail nature of his constitution, he, by care and temperance, reached the age of 77 ; and he died, venerated for his exalted genius, piety, and cultivated manners, 1715. The philosophical writings of Father Malebranche are in style a perfect model of elegance and perspicuity. Based on mingled Cartesian and Platonic principles, they attempt to show that there is a mysterious union between God and the soul of man ; and that the human mind perceives God, and sees all things in Him—'Nous voyons tout en Dieu.' The sources of human error he makes three—sensation, imagination, and the pure intellect ; not that the cognitive faculties are in themselves imperfect, but that the will, in forming its own opinion of the objects presented to it, errs. In seeing a light, or feeling warmth, light and warmth exist, are perceived, and so far error is impossible ; but when the will, as it is free to do, decides the light and warmth perceived to exist in the object without, error arises. Sensation, therefore, as it must always be accompanied by pleasure or pain, is the chief source of error, and of those false systems of morality which make pleasure the 'summum bonum' ; for the senses present to the mind nothing but a delusive good, whereas the only true and real good—the Deity—is cognisable by the pure intellect alone. The portion of the father's philosophy peculiarly his own, relates to the doctrine of ideas. Their existence in the mind he declares a fact not need-

ing to be proved ; but he denies that it therefore follows of necessity 'that objects corresponding to those ideas do actually exist.' For, he observes, the imagination often presents ideas, and combinations of ideas, which do not exist. Indeed there is no greater hinderance to truth and knowledge than the erroneous belief that ideas refer to actually-existing objects. Now all ideas may be classed under two heads : they are either internal *i. e.* thoughts, properly so called, which are therefore mere modifications of the thinking soul ; or they are relative to certain external objects, of which the soul cannot be cognisant without the mediation of ideas. The result of all his reasoning is, that God, as the Creator of all, necessarily possesses within Himself ideas of all things ; since otherwise the creation of them would have been impossible. By his omnipresence, and as the source of spirituality, He is intimately connected with all spirits ; for God may be called the place of all spirits, as space is that of whatever is corporeal,—since extension is the essence of matter, and thought of mind. The soul therefore sees in God the works of God, as far as it pleases Him to reveal them to man ; in a word, we see all things in and by God—that is, again,—'Nous voyons tout en Dieu.'

MARIE MARQUISE DE SEVIGNE, sole heiress of the baronial house of Bussy Rabutin, having lost her husband, the marquis of Sevigné, in a duel 1651, devoted her remaining days to the education of her two children ; and when her daughter had married the count de Grignan, 1669, and gone to reside with him in Provence, that correspondence began between mother and daughter, which has established the fame of the Marquise, who died, aged 70, 1696. The chief merit of Madame de Sevigné's letters is their facile style. All is nature and ease in her descriptions ; but beyond this, together with lively touches of sentiment, and a sprightliness which clothes trifles with im-

portance, there is very little to eulogize. The Marquise placed all the happiness of life in high connections, courtly grandeur, and beauty of person; and we need not attempt to show how sandy and poor a foundation she thus selected to build upon. Beauty is indeed a frail and fleeting thing, and courtly grandeur and high connections are poor substitutes for a contented and humble spirit. It is not nobility itself, but the mere love of it, that we would censure: that meanness of character which vaunts itself in having the shadow of a great man's person for its own substance: nobility ought to scorn admirers of this class. To be noble, and not the parasite of nobles, may be a laudable desire; for who would not choose to be bred in generous sentiments, strangers to those vicious falsehoods and grovelling calculations, which the necessities of society first, and then habit, often lead men to practise, whose lives are spent in pursuit of fortune? Indeed in the constitution of English society, he is not a wise man, or one just to his family, who, with the gifts of education and fortune, declines his sovereign's proffered advancement. When a man is in the habit of *thinking* nobly, he is likely to yield the fruit of noble *actions*; just as we are certain we have acquired the power of *speaking* a language which has been the object of our study, when we begin to *think* in it. 'Birth and nobility,' says Blackstone, 'are a stronger obligation to virtue than is laid upon meaner persons. A vicious or dishonourable nobleman is in effect perjured; for his honour is his oath.' Such a desire is laudable in another and even stronger point of view; namely, on the ground that there *must* be high and low rank—while man is man, there *must* be rich and poor. Now, linked as high rank in the main is with riches, and low with poverty, no one could be accused of moral error for preferring the former to the latter. That there *must* be high and low rank is clear, when we reflect that a state

of perfect equality can subsist only among beings possessing equal talents and equal virtues; but such beings are not men. Were all mankind under the constant influence of the laws of virtue, a distinction of ranks would be unnecessary; but in that case civil government itself would likewise be unnecessary, because men would have attained all that perfection to which it is the object of civil government to guide them. Every man then would be a law to himself. But whilst, in so many breasts, the selfish passions predominate over those which are social, violence must be restrained by authority; and there can be no authority without a distinction of ranks, such as may powerfully influence the public opinion. But nobility should be sought on higher motives than the mere escape from poverty and mean sentiments: it is to be desired for the enlarged sphere it offers for the performance of good actions—for the power it affords the so raised of showing forth God's glory by acting, not ostentatiously, but in the true spirit of Christian philanthropy, as the patrons and friends of their distressed fellow-creatures.

POETS.—ABRAHAM COWLEY, born in London, was educated at Westminster School, and Trinity College, Cambridge. On being ejected from the latter for royalist opinions, he entered at St. John's, Oxford, and gave to the world his satire of 'The Puritan and Papist;' and his regard for lord Falkland then led him to perform some dangerous voyages in the king's service. He was at length arrested by Cromwell's emissaries, 1656, though released on giving bail; and at the Restoration he retired to Chertsey, and devoted his remaining days to literature, dying, aged 49, 1667. The poetry of Cowley, though uncouth and inelegant, is replete with energy, wit, and metaphysical subtlety. SAMUEL BUTLER, born at Strensham, Worcestershire, was first articled to a justice of peace, then resided in some capacity in the family

of the countess of Kent, where he had access to a valuable library; and lastly lived in Bedfordshire, in the house of Sir Samuel Luke, one of Cromwell's officers, where he planned, if he did not write, his 'Hudibras,' the knight being the hero of the poem. At the Restoration, Butler was appointed steward of Ludlow Castle, and began the publication of his immortal work 1663; but while the king and court banqueted on his wit, and derived security from his talented ridicule of the fanatical republicans, he was wholly neglected, left his poem unfinished, and died in poverty, aged 68, 1680. 'Hudibras,' both for style and manner, is a truly original production, exhibiting the faculty of wit (*i. e.* the power of rapid illustration by remote contingent resemblances,) more characteristically and essentially than any other single book in existence. And since fanaticism, hypocrisy, and time-serving venality are of all ages, quotations from its pages will never cease to be made, nor to be applicable. THOMAS OTWAY, born at Trotting, Sussex, was educated at Winchester, and Christchurch, Oxford, and embarked as a cornet for Flanders 1677. But a military life soon disgusted him, and he returned to London poor, and necessitated to write for his support. At length, having contracted debts, he hid himself from bailiffs in a public-house on Tower-hill; whence, it is alleged, he went out one morning ill-clad, and in a state of famishing hunger, to a coffee-house, where he found a gentleman who knew him, and who, when he asked of him a shilling, gave him a guinea. Hurrying to a baker's shop, he bought a roll; and eating it in haste, a portion of the new bread stuck in his throat, and as it could not be extricated, he died, in his 35th year, 1685. The fame of Otway rests on his tragedies of the 'Orphan,' and 'Venice Preserved,' and tenderness and pathos being his forte, no writer has ever touched the string of domestic distress with more force and feeling.

While in every sense poetical, his diction is easy and natural, and his incidents are always irresistibly moving. EDMUND WALLER, born at Coleshill, Warwickshire, was educated at Eton, and King's College, Cambridge, and chosen at 17 member for Amersham, in the last parliament of James I. He became known to the public by carrying off a rich heiress, against a rival whose pretensions were espoused by the court; but his happiness was of such short duration, that he was a widower at 25. As he had espoused the parliament side, he was in 1642 one of the commissioners sent to the king at Oxford; but in the following year he was detected in a conspiracy to seize the Tower, and purchased his life, after a years' imprisonment, by a fine of 10,000*l.* After this he retired to France, and on his return became a favourite, first with Cromwell, and subsequently, by his versatility of talent, with Charles II. and James II.; and he died of a dropsy at Beaconfield, aged 82, 1687. The public character of Waller was venal and contemptible; but as an amatory poet he is deserving of all praise, being the first to convince the world (by a series of lyric pieces of extraordinary ease and brilliancy) that our language had euphony and expression. JOHN DENHAM, son of the chief baron of the exchequer in Ireland, completed his education at Trinity College, Oxford; and though at first dissolute, reformed, and devoting his hours to poetry, gave to the world his tragedy of 'The Sophi,' 1641, a piece so admired, that Waller observed 'Denham had broken out like the Irish rebellion, 60,000 strong, when no person suspected it.' In the civil war, he attended the court at Oxford; and he was subsequently employed in several confidential missions by Charles I. At the Restoration he was created K. B., and made surveyor of the king's buildings; and he died, highly respected, aged 73, 1688. Denham's fame rests on his poem of 'Cooper's Hill,' one of the

earliest examples of local description, united with historical and didactic matter. He may be called the inventor of 'local poetry,' of which the fundamental subject is some particular landscape to be poetically described, with the addition of such embellishments as history and meditation may furnish. PIERRE CORNEILLE, born at Rouen, turned his mind from the law to the drama, and, upon the success of his comedy of 'Mélite,' produced a tragedy, 'Médée,' performed 1636, and then 'The Cid,' his chef-d'œuvre. 'Cinna' and 'The Horatii' followed; and his delineation of Roman character was singularly accurate. Colbert patronised him, Boileau was his generous and admiring friend, and Louis XIV., who never disregarded men of talent, presented him with 200 louis, and would have further aided him but for the poet's death, aged 78, 1684. Corneille must be regarded as the greatest dramatist ever produced by France. JEAN RACINE, born at Ferté Milon, was educated in the monastery of Port Royal, and became known to the public by an ode on the marriage of Louis XIV., for which, through the patronage of Colbert, he was rewarded with a pension. This inducing him to pursue poetry as a profession, he produced between 1666 and 1677 numerous tragedies, which have fully established his fame; especially his 'Andromaque.' On the success of his 'Phèdre,' 1677, Pradon, a poet of little capacity, produced a rival piece, which sufficiently pleased the bad taste of 'the many' to make Racine think of turning friar; but his confessor gave him the better advice to marry, and he at the same time reconciled himself to his old friends of the Port Royal by ceasing to write for the stage. Being a gentleman in ordinary to the king, he slept in the royal apartments during the monarch's indispositions, that he might read and recite to him; but he gave offence to his royal master, by censuring his ministers in a tract drawn up at the desire of Madame

de Maintenon. Hoping, however, the fault had been forgotten, he one day took his station in a gallery along which Louis had to pass; but as the king turned his head away when he saw him, the sensitive heart of the poet sank within him, and he retired, took to his bed, and died, aged 60, 1699. The 'Athalie,' a sacred drama, written for the young ladies of Madame de Maintenon, is regarded as Racine's chef-d'œuvre; a work which in sublimity, majesty, and pathos, outvies every other production of the French serious drama. JEAN BAPTISTE DE MOLIERE, born at Paris, relinquished the trade of tapestry-making for the Jesuits' College at Clermont, and then ran away to join a company of players! Obtaining Richelieu's patronage, he exchanged his family name of Pocqueelin for Molière; in 1653, produced his first play, 'L'Etourdi' (the blunderer); exhibited as an actor before Louis XIV.; and continued from that time to entertain the court by a rapid production of new plays, of which his 'Tartuffe' and 'Misanthrope' are regarded his masterpieces. His last piece was 'Le Malade Imaginaire,' to the fourth representation of which he fell a sacrifice. He himself acted the imaginary sick man in the piece; but labouring at the time under a pulmonary complaint, he was requested to defer the performance. This, on the score of injury to the company, he declined; and his efforts brought on the rupture of a blood-vessel, by which he was suffocated. This happened 1673, in his 54th year. Harlai, archbishop of Paris, having refused (as was the custom in the case of stage-players, who are regarded by old canon law as excommunicated persons,) to give him Christian burial, the king's order was obliged to be obtained for his interment in the protestant chapel of Eustache. Molière stands at the head of French comedy; nor has any one in any nation arisen, in his own peculiar line, to bear away from him the palm. His great excellence is in the

natural exhibition of character ; and his worst defect is the precipitation of his *éclaircissemens*. CHARLES COTTON, who wrote the second part of Walton's Angler, was of a good family, resident near the Peak in Derbyshire, and was educated at Cambridge. His paternal estate was incumbered with mortgages ; and being a careless man, he did nothing to redeem them, but on the contrary ran in debt, and was for some time in a gaol. His marriages were advantageous to him as regarded fortune ; and soon after his last union (with the dowager countess of Ardglass,) he died, aged 57, 1687. He was a great writer of burlesque poetry, though he shone more in didactic and pathetic subjects. The following is a stanza from his Retirement :—

' How calm and quiet a delight
Is it alone
To read, and meditate, and write,
By none offended, and offending none !
To walk, ride, sit, or sleep at one's own
ease,
And pleasing a man's self, none other to
displease.'

PAINTERS.—JACOB CUYP sketched the views in the environs of Dort, his place of abode ; always introducing pieces of water, with cattle on the banks, and particularly cows and sheep. He also painted battle-pieces, and the marchings and encampments of armies. He had a good pencil, a broad and free touch, a sweet and agreeable tone of colouring, an outline generally correct, and a clever transparency in water. At Dort his memory is still held in respect, as the chief founder of the academy of St. Luke there, 1642. His son *Albert* was born at Dort 1606, and became more celebrated. Jacob had principally adhered to cows and sheep ; but to Albert oxen, sheep, cows, horses, fruit, ships, and rough and smooth water, were alike familiar. He was always lovely and true in colouring, clear, and transparent ; and in his pictures, the morning with its mists and vapours, the bright light of noon, and the saffron tints of evening, may readily be distinguished. He was great in

moonlight pieces ; but he is allowed to have chiefly excelled in winter pieces. His pencilling was not so bold as that of his father, but it was infinitely neater. Albert died at Dort aged 61, 1667. CLAUDE DE LORRAINE left the service of a pastry-cook at Toul, in Lorraine, and travelled to Rome, where Trasso, a painter, hired him as a common servant. The kindness of his master soon made him acquainted with painting ; and his genius beginning to expand, Claude retired to the banks of the Tiber, where in solitude he copied with effect the striking scenes of nature. Thus did the poor pastry-cook's boy (almost self-taught) produce those noble landscapes, which, for the fine distribution of light and shade, harmony, and the exquisite delicacy of the tints, have procured him immortal fame. He died, aged 82, 1682. DAVID TENIERS, born at Antwerp, studied under Rubens ; and after visiting Rome, settled in his native city as an artist. His pieces are much admired for their expression, and contain entertaining scenes taken from country fairs, drinking-parties, merry-makings, &c. He died, aged 67, 1649. *David*, his son, born also at Antwerp, rose to still greater celebrity. His subjects are fairs, inn-room scenes, smoking-parties, and other exhibitions of common life ; and they are treated with surprising harmony, spirit, and correctness. His manner of touching, or as artists call it 'handling,' has never perhaps been equalled ; there being in his pictures that exact mixture of softness and sharpness which is requisite for due effect, but most difficult to produce. '*Young Teniers*,' as he is styled, died at the good round age of 84, 1694. PAUL POTTER, born in Holland, became famous for his landscapes, the subjects of which are all taken from his native country. The animals of his pieces are principally cows, oxen, sheep, and goats, which he painted in the highest perfection. His colouring is soft, transparent, and true to

nature, his touch free and delicate, and his outline correct. His skies, trees, and distances show a remarkable freedom of hand, with a masterly ease and negligence; and he is certainly to be regarded as one of the best of the Flemish painters. His works now sell at a high price; and for a single small picture of his, the marquis of Westminster gave 9000 guineas! He died, aged, only 29, 1654. FRANCIS SNYDERS, born at Artwerp, became steward of the household to the archduke Ferdinand in Flanders. Accustomed to work with Rubens and Jordaens, some of the most valuable paintings of the Flemish school are their joint production; and the distinctive works of Snymers are fish, hunting-parties, and decided portraits of particular beasts, the best of which are in the Escorial in Spain. He died, aged 78, 1657. NICHOLAS BERGHEM, born at Haarlem, became a very eminent painter of landscapes and seapieces. He is among those artists who sought to give to the Dutch school something of the airy elegance and grace of the Italian. He loved the quiet, the retired, and the beautiful: his favourite studies were the brook-banks, the budding-trees, the browsing cattle, and the piping shepherd: he rejoiced in the songs of the birds, the ripening fields of grain, the freshening showers, and the rising sun glancing on tree and town, all but conscious of the life and loveliness below. The leafing of his trees is exquisitely and freely touched; his skies are clear, and his clouds float as if actually supported by air. The distinguishing characters of his pictures are the breadth and just distribution of the lights, the easy attitudes of his figures, the just gradation of his distances, and the brilliancy and harmony, as well as the transparency, of his colouring. He was a careful finisher of his works: 'Nature,' he used to say, 'finished her's with much minuteness, and artists ought not to be wiser in their own conceit than nature.' He died, aged

59, 1683. BARTOLOMEO MURILLO, born at Seville, of poor parents, evinced his taste for the fine arts by painting banners, and small religious pictures, for exportation to the catholic churches in America. Being satisfied at the mature age of 29 that a visit to Italy was requisite to his success, he painted numerous small flower-pieces, and sold them as he passed towards Madrid; whereby he accumulated money enough to carry him to Rome. After a three years' sojourn in the Capitol, he returned to Seville, and rose to notice by painting the cloister of St. Francis there, and two pictures, the death of St. Clara, and St. James distributing alms. He was at length invited to Cadiz to paint the great altar of the Capuchins; where, falling from a lofty scaffold, he hurt himself so severely, that he continued a sufferer for several years, till death relieved him, 1682, at the age of 69. Murillo, as an imitator of nature, is second to none. He is sometimes vulgar, but ever easy and correct; and the sweetness, brilliancy, freshness, and harmony of his colouring, cause his petty defects to be overlooked. SALVATOR ROSA, born at Renella in Naples, was the son of an architect, and quitted the study of music for the sister art of painting. He had for some time worked in obscurity at Naples, when his picture of Hagar and Ishmael fell into the hands of Lanfranco, an eminent painter; and he was from that moment continually engaged either at Rome or Florence till his decease in the Capitol, aged 59, 1673. Rosa delighted in delineating scenes of gloomy grandeur, and terrible magnificence. The wilds of the Appennines were his studio: hence savage scenery, broken rocks, wild thickets, and desert plains, are the landscapes in which he delighted. His trees are shattered, torn, and dishevelled; and in the atmosphere itself he seldom introduced a cheerful hue, except occasionally a solitary sunbeam. His pictures are, perhaps, less difficult to describe than most other works of art; for there is an

allusion or a story in them all. For the wildest scenes he finds deeds equally wild. The storm in the sky is matched by the tempest of human passion on the earth: the roughest rock he delineates is scarcely more rugged than its rude inhabitant, who, with pistols in his belt, his hand on a sword, and his ears open to all sounds, stands ready for deeds of violence. Among his chief compositions are the *Regulus in the Colonna Palace*; *Saul and the Witch of Endor at Versailles*; a *Martyrdom of Saints at Rome*; the *Purgatory in Milan*; and the *Catiline at Florence*. PHILIP WOUVERMANS, born at Haarlem, acquired celebrity by his landscapes, diversified with encampments, huntings, &c.; in all which his delineation of the horse is especially accurate. Though much admired, he was not sufficiently patronised to keep much above poverty; and he is said to have died of a broken heart on this account, aged 68, 1668. A few hours before that event, he burned a box of his designs, 'in order,' he said, 'to prevent his son from being allured to embrace so miserable and uncertain a profession.' GERARD DOUW, son of a glazier at Leyden, studied under the great Rembrandt, from whom he imbibed the true principles of colouring and chiaroscuro. His first pictures were small portraits, which were extremely admired for the resemblance and their beauty of finish; but the length of time he took at them wearied those who sat to him, and he in consequence abandoned portrait painting for fancy subjects. Five sittings did he once make a lady take for the finishing one of her hands that leaned on an arm-chair. He was able to indulge his propensity to neatness and high finish in his representations of still life, such as the inside of a cottage with a woman at work, &c.; in one of which pictures, while under his hand, a visitor took notice of a broom, saying 'its high finish must have cost him too much labour for so trifling an object.' Douw, however, assured the observer that he should

spend three more days upon it 'before he could account it complete.' His works have all found high prices, and are consequently confined to rare collections. He died, aged 61, 1674. The colouring of Douw was true and enduring; his pieces are seen to a like good effect at a distance or close; and though more finished than the productions of other Flemish masters, they are never stiff. His *chef-d'œuvre* are, a Physician attending a Sick Woman, a Candlelight Piece, and a Mountebank surrounded by a number of figures. PAUL REMBRANDT VAN RHYN was son of a miller, and born near Leyden. In 1630 he settled at Amsterdam as a painter of history, portraits, and landscape; and his style, at first delicate, he changed for a bold and forcible manner, with a vast body of colour, and masses of deep shade, relieved by bright lights. The effect was coarseness and confusion, when viewed near; but, at a distance, nothing could appear more mellow and harmonious. But master as Rembrandt was in colour and chiaroscuro, he was wholly without grace in the human figure; a defect attributable to his propensity for low society, out of which no success could keep him. From his careless habits, he became a bankrupt and removed to Sweden, where he was patronized by the king; but he eventually returned to Amsterdam, and died there, aged 68, 1674. THE RUYSDAELS were two brothers, Flemish painters, natives of Haarlem. Solomon (1616—1670) is principally known for his beautiful representations of marble. Jacob (1636—1681) is considered one of the finest delineators of wood and water in the Dutch school. His scenes are all life and nature, and he had a grandeur not common with Flemish painters, and a singular transparency of colour. He used to wander by the wild wood and the foaming river; and from nature's self noted down the varied aspects of the landscape, under every influence of weather. He died, aged 45, 1681. THE BOTHS were also two

brothers, natives of Utrecht; and so attached to each other, that they usually worked in common on the same picture. Bloemart was their first master; and to perfect themselves, they went to Italy, and remained there several years. *John* devoted himself to the landscape part of the picture; and the warmth of his skies, the judicious and regular receding of the objects, and the sweetness of his distances, afford the eye almost the same degree of pleasure it experiences on regarding the works of Claude, his model. *Andrew* introduced figures into *John's* landscape—moving groups—with so much taste and skill, that the whole picture seemed the work but of one master. *Andrew* was unhappily drowned in a canal at Venice, 1645, aged 33; whereon *John* returned to Utrecht, where, the loss of his brother continually preying on his mind, he died 1650, aged 40. The works of these true 'adelphs,' whose Dutch name singularly agrees with the English term for 'unity,' now fetch large prices. They generally express the sunny light of morning breaking out from behind woods, hills, or mountains, and diffusing a glow over the whole face of nature; or else a sunset, with a lovely tinge in the clouds, every object beautifully partaking of a proper degree of illumination. *CHARLES LE BRUN*, born at Paris, visited Italy 1642, and boarded six years with Poussin. On his return to Paris he became celebrated as an historical and allegorical painter; and under the patronage of Colbert and Louis XIV., the latter of whom frequently went to see him work, he produced his *Penitent Magdalen*, *Alexander's Battles*, *Carrying the Cross*, *The Crucifixion*, &c. All his pieces are alike admirable for greatness of design, arrangement, and lofty expression; though the colouring is somewhat at variance with taste, and there is some mannerism in the grouping, with a spice of flaunting affectation so delightful to French taste. He died, aged 70, 1690.

CONTEMPORARIES.—*Matthew Hale*,

born at Aldersley, Gloucestershire, quitted Magdalen-hall, Oxford, for Lincoln's inn, and as a pleader, became the advocate of both royalists and republicans. Though he defended Strafford, Laud, and king Charles himself, he subscribed the covenant; and though the death of Charles shocked his feelings, he accepted from Cromwell a judgeship of the common pleas. After going two or three circuits, however, he seems to have repented of his middle course; and not only declined acting on the crown side, but refused to wear mourning for the protector's death. At the Restoration he was made chief baron of the exchequer, in 1671 lord chief justice, and died, aged 76, 1676. Judge Hale wrote much on professional subjects; but the book by which he now lives is his 'Contemplations,' a sterling work of piety, which cannot be lauded beyond its merits. *James Bernoulli*, born at Basle, came 1682 to England, whither his astronomical reputation had preceded him. He was appointed to the chair of philosophy at Basle 1687, and died, through intense study, of a low fever, 1705, aged 51, ordering, like another Archimedes, a logarithmic spiral line to be engraven on his tomb, with the words 'Eadem mutata resurgo.' Bernoulli's fame chiefly rests on his discovery of some before unnoticed properties of the curve. *Lucretia Cornaro*, of the ancient Venetian family of Cornaro, which had given doges to the oligarchy, not only ventured to matriculate at the university of Padua, but took her degree of D.D. there! Her application hastened her death, which occurred in her 38th year, 1685.

John Bunyan, son of a tinker, was born at Elstow, near Bedford, and for some time led that wandering, dissipated life, which seems incidental to the tinker's occupation. At length he entered the parliament army as a common soldier; and after indulging every vicious propensity of his nature, 'his career, (say his biographers) was stopped by the sudden

darting of a voice from heaven into his soul, which bade him either leave his sins, or perish forthwith in hell !' His morals being instantly changed, he joined a society of anabaptists at Bedford ; and at length undertook the office of a teacher among them. Soon after the Restoration, he incurred the sentence of transportation as a dissident, but was in lieu detained in prison for more than twelve years ; and his confinement gave birth to his 'Pilgrim's Progress,' a religious allegory, unrivalled amid a host of imitators, and still deservedly one of the most popular works of imagination in the world. Towards the close of his imprisonment, a quaker called on the author, hoping to make a convert of him, and thus addressed him : 'Friend John, I am come to thee with a message from the Lord ; and after having searched for thee in half the prisons in England, am glad that I have found thee at last.' Bunyan however, suspecting the trick, sarcastically replied : 'If the Lord *had* sent thee, friend, thou needest not have taken so much pains to have found me out ; for the Lord knows that I have been a prisoner in Bedford gaol for these twelve years.' Bunyan died, aged 60, 1688.

William Penn, son of the parliamentary admiral, was born in London, and entered at Christ-church, Oxford, as a gentleman-commoner. On withdrawing from the national form of worship, with those who, like himself, listened to the preaching of Loe, a quaker, he was expelled the university, and turned out of doors by his father ; and though subsequently reconciled to the latter, he again lost his protection when he refused to appear uncovered before both him and the king. In 1668 he appeared as a preacher among the quakers. His father, nevertheless, left him an estate of 1500*l.* per annum at his decease ; and Charles II., in lieu of a debt due to his father by the crown, granted him, at his solicitation, a province of North America (now called Pennsylvania), whither a colony of quakers soon flocked and built a town, which, on the principle

of brotherly love, received the name of Philadelphia. Penn returned to England, 1684 ; and the remnant of his days was passed in preaching, making converts, and once more visiting his colony 1699. He died at his house at Rushcomb, Berks, aged 74, 1718.

Charles Delafosse, born at Paris, studied in Italy, and returning to his native city, painted the dome of the Hôtel des Invalides. Louis XIV. gave him a handsome pension, and enabled him to succeed as rector of the academy of painting. On visiting England, he was for some time engaged in adorning the duke of Montague's house, now the British Museum ; and he died at Paris, aged 76, 1716.

Thomas Sydenham, born at Winford Eagle, Dorset, was completing his studies at Magdalen-hall, Oxford, when the garrisoning of that city by the partisans of Charles I. induced him to quit the university for London, his brother being a colonel in the parliament army. He settled as a physician in London, and from 1660 to 1670 was regarded as the leader of his profession in the metropolis ; attending the people during the great plague, and especially devoting his attention to febrile and stomach affections. He was terribly affected with gout during the last 15 years of his life, and died at his house in Pall-mall, aged 65, 1689. Sydenham began the modern school of medicine, by casting away prevalent theories, and attending to the obvious indications of nature. He directed a cooling regimen in the small-pox and inflammatory fevers, contrary to the practice of his day ; and to the nervous patient his constant facetious prescription was 'Recipe caballum'—horse-exercise being his panacea for all affections connected with imperfect digestion. His medical works are many and valuable.

Isaac Walton, born at Stafford of poor parents, settled in London as a man-milliner, and eventually kept a linendraper's-shop in Fleet-street. In

1631 he married the sister of the excellent bishop Ken; and when the civil war began, he retired from business to Winchester, where he died, aged 90, 1683. Though wholly a self-taught man, Walton was author of works which will be valued as long as our language is read. These are, the first part of 'The Complete Angler,' and brief lives of Sander-son, Hooker, Wotton, George Herbert, and Donne, which throughout display an air of verisimilitude and unaffected benevolence. *Thomas Thynne*, a gentleman of fortune residing at Longleat, Wilts, and member for that county, was called 'Tom of Ten Thousand' for his unbounded hospitality. He married the lady Elizabeth Percy, countess of Ogle, sole heiress of Joscelyne, earl of Northumberland; but on the day of his union, February 12, 1682, while riding in his coach, he was set upon and murdered by three assassins hired by Charles, count Koningsmark, a necessitous adventurer who had been refused by lady Ogle. Mr. Thynne is the Issachar of Dryden's Absalom and Achitophel; and from his family descends the noble house of Bath, of which Longleat is still one of the seats. *Robert Barclay*, born at Edinburgh, imbibed the Romish tenets in France, but, on his return to Scotland, became a quaker, and then travelled through most European countries with the equally eccentric Penn, to make converts. He wrote a Latin 'Apology for the Quakers' and numerous like works, and died highly respected for his benevolent intentions and pure life, aged 41, 1690.

Seth Ward, born at Buntingford, Herts, was expelled his fellowship at Sidney College, Cambridge, for refusing to subscribe the Covenant; but was, in reward, made bishop of Exeter, 1662, and translated to Sarum (Salisbury), 1667, with the chancellorship of the Order of the Garter, which has ever since been annexed to the see of Sarum. Bishop Ward wrote an excellent philosophi-

cal work on the Being and Attributes of God, founded at Sarum a college for 10 clergymen's widows, and died, aged 72, 1689. *John Pearson*, born at Snoring, Suffolk, and educated at Eton, and King's, Cambridge, lost his living of Torrington through the rebellion, but was made bishop of Chester after the Restoration, and died, aged 74, 1686. His great work is 'An Exposition of the Creed.' *Jeremy Taylor*, son of a Cambridge barber, was admitted at 13 at Caius College in that university, and became chaplain to Laud, who gave him the living of Uppingham. At the opening of the civil war, he retired to Carmarthen, and there set up a school; but the death of his three sons in three months, drove him thence to Ireland. At the Restoration he was made bishop of Down and Connor; and he died, aged 54, 1667. This excellent divine, who, on account of the symmetry of his person, was styled 'the beauty of holiness,' has left us an invaluable treasure in his 'Golden Grove,' and 'Holy Living and Dying;' works as elegant in diction (for their day) as they are fervidly devotional. 'His Liberty of Prophesying' (i. e. of preaching) pleads eloquently for liberty of conscience; but it raised him enemies by its injudicious attack upon the damnable clauses of the Athanasian creed; to which the author was led by his horror of religious persecution.

John Wilkins, born at Fawley, Northamptonshire, on leaving Magdalen Hall, Oxford, became chaplain to lord Say; and on the breaking out of the civil war, joined the parliament. He was appointed warden of Wadham College, Oxford, and one of the reformers of that university; and in 1656 married Robina, the widow of Peter French, sister of Cromwell, obtaining through that alliance a dispensation to keep the headship of his college, against the statutes, which required celibacy. In 1659 he was made master of Trinity College, Cambridge, by Richard Cromwell, but was

ejected at the Restoration; though in 1668 he was promoted to the see of Chester. He died at the house of Dr. Tillotson, his son-in-law, aged 58, 1672. Wilkins is more known as a philosopher than divine. His mechanical skill was displayed in the formation of automata; he brought together at his rooms, Wallis, Wren, Boyle, and other scientific men, thus obtaining for Wadham the name of 'the philosophic college;' and he first assumed the moon to be habitable and inhabited, and prognosticated that steam would one day become the great mechanical power. *Robert Sanderson*, born at Rotherham, Yorkshire, was educated at Lincoln College, Oxford, and had the rectory of Boothby Pagnel 40 years. Through Laud, he became chaplain to Charles I., and attended the monarch at Hampton Court, and in the Isle of Wight; and at the Restoration he was made bishop of Lincoln. He died, aged 75, 1662. His sermons and divinity tracts are very valuable, and give evidence of his great controversial powers. He boasted of only studying three books—Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, Aquinas' *'Secunda Secundæ,'* and Cicero's *Offices*. *Brian Walton*, born at Cleveland, Yorkshire, studied at Magdalen College and Peterhouse, Cambridge; and because, as chaplain to Charles I., he had defended the church against the presbyterians, he was proscribed by the parliament, and fled to Oxford, 1645. There, amid the tumult of the civil war, he published his famous polyglott Bible, in Hebrew, Syriac, Chaldee, Samaritan, Ethiopic, Arabic, Persian, Greek, and Latin; for which, at the Restoration, he was made bishop of Chester, but died in a year, aged 60, 1661. *John Lightfoot*, born at Stoke-on-Trent, Staffordshire, completed his education at Christ's College, Cambridge; and after taking orders, became chaplain to Sir Rowland Cotton, a good Hebraist. Hence he imbibed a taste for oriental literature, which made him eventually the most eminent man in rabbinical learn-

ing which this country has ever produced. Sir Rowland gave him the rectory of Ashley; but by some means he became the favourite of the roundheads, was appointed one of the assembly of divines for settling the church, and made master of Catherine Hall, Cambridge, 1653. He was not deprived at the Restoration; and in 1661, was one of the clergy deputed to meet at the Savoy, concerning the Liturgy. He died, aged 73, 1675. *Giovanni Bona*, born of a noble family, became Abbot of the Cistercians of Mondovi, his native town, and general of the order of St. Bernard. In 1669 Clement XI. made him a cardinal; but he lost his election to the papal chair on the death of Clement, and died, aged 65, 1674. He was author of many devotional treatises, and among them of *'A Guide to Heaven,'* a valuable little manual. Cardinal Bona ranks high as a mystical writer; and his productions deserve the highest praise for the orthodoxy of their doctrine, their affecting piety, deep erudition, and exquisite Latinity.

Henri, Vicomte de Turenne, son of the duc de Bouillon, after 17 years' service in the French army, was made a marshal, 1642. He took the side of the rebellious princes in the civil wars of his country; but on being reconciled to the court, he checked the progress of Condé. In 1657 he aided Cromwell to seize Dunkirk, in 1672 deprived the Dutch of 40 towns in 22 days, and in 1674 took Franche Compté from the Spaniards. This last act occasioned a powerful league against Louis XIV.; but Turenne, ever active, overran the palatinate, where the main German army was, defeated it at Sintzein, and caused the elector to see from his castle at Manheim, two cities and 25 villages around him in flames. A new German general, Montecuculli, was then sent against him; and he was killed by a cannon-shot while directing the raising of a battery, at Saltzbach, aged 64, 1675. *Louis, Prince de Condé*, called 'the great Condé,' a

kinsman of Henri IV., entered the army at 22; and after defeating the Spaniards at Rocroi, and taking Thionville, entered Germany as a conqueror. In the civil strife of France, he at first supported the crown; but on quarrelling with Mazarin, he joined the Spaniards against his country, and was not reconciled to the court till the peace of the Pyrenees, 1659. He compensated in some measure the injury his desertion had inflicted on his honour, by aiding Turenne in adding Franche Comté to France 1674; and died, aged 65, 1686. *Michael de Ruyter* was second in command under Van Tromp, as a Dutch admiral, 1653, in the three battles fought against the English; and in 1672 and 1673 was chief admiral against the English and French allied fleets. In 1676 he received a wound in fighting against the French, off Sicily, and died, aged 69.

Baruch de Spinoza, son of a Portuguese Jew of Amsterdam, apostatized, and in his retirement at the Hague promulgated the principles of a new faith and philosophy, which had many followers in Holland. He affirmed that there was an universal whole, and a soul of the world. The essence of substance is to exist; and there is but one substance, with its modes, thoughts, and extension. This substance has within it the necessary causes of the changes through which it passes, and is God; but, as a substance, it can create no other substance, all things being only immanent and necessary modifications of the one eternal whole. Thus this fanatic went even beyond the philosophy which declared God to be the universal whole, from whom emanated the visible and intellectual worlds, as from a sun or fountain of divinity. Spinoza died of consumption, aged 45, 1677.

Eduard Herbert, born at Montgomery Castle, Wales, entered at the early age of 12 as a gentleman commoner at University College, Oxford. James I. made him a knight of the Bath, just after his early mar-

riage with his kinswoman, the heiress of Sir William Herbert; and he thereupon, tired of the uniformity of the English court, visited the continent, carrying with him a host of chivalrous notions, and rashly quarrelling with peer or prince, who respected not as he wished his gallant bearing. After serving under the prince of Orange in the Netherlands 1614, and as resident ambassador at Paris, where he insulted the constable Luyne, inasmuch that Louis XIII. sent a complaint of him home to James, he was in 1625 created lord Herbert of Cherbury by Charles I. Nevertheless he took a command in the parliament army, but subsequently quitted it, and was a great sufferer in his fortune in consequence. He died, aged 67, 1648. Lord Herbert was a deist, and wrote deistical books; and his own 'Memoirs' prove that he was an extraordinary instance through life of a vain and self-deluded man. *Andrew Marvell*, born at Kingston-on-Hull, was educated at Trinity college, Cambridge; and on losing his father by drowning, while attending a female friend's daughter across the Humber, was adopted by the deprived mother, travelled in the East, and became on his return amanuensis to Milton (then Cromwell's Latin secretary,) and in 1660 member for his native town, which he continued to represent till his death, aged 58, 1678. Marvell's political course was based on regarding every thing after the Restoration as emanating from popery and tyranny, in which spirit he published his 'Growth of Popery and Arbitrary Government in England;' and though Charles II. endeavoured, in a personal conference, to bring him over to the court-party, and sent him 1000*l.* in his necessities, he resisted both his solicitation and his money, and died poor. *François, duc de Rochefoucault*, was one of the most distinguished wits of the court of Louis XIV., and by his share in the good graces of the duchess of Longueville, became involved in the civil war of the Fronde. In the

consequent contest, he received a shot in the face, which for some months deprived him of sight; and the remainder of his life was passed about the court. He died, aged 67, 1680. The duke's fame would seem to be built on his 'Reflexions et Maximes,' a book which asserts all human works of excellence to be the necessary effect of their cause, self-love. It would occupy a volume to show how this essential ingredient in our nature may be regarded as the incentive to vicious, as certainly as to virtuous actions; but where there has been a steady religious and moral training, it is seen clearly that it is principally conducive to the most disinterested (so to speak) performance of our most sacred duties. The 'maxims' of the author are frequently the result of a deep insight into human character; but they are chiefly valuable for the view they give of that highly artificial gloss which the mind takes from a thorough court training, where finesse and insincerity come at last to be regarded as its natural attributes. *Thomas Willis*, born at Great Bedwin, Wilts, and educated at Christchurch, Oxford, studied medicine, and at the Restoration was appointed physician to the king; and he continued the most money-making practitioner in London from that time till his decease, at the age of 58, 1675. His chief works were on the nervous system and brain; but they have all given place to the more accurate systems of later days. *Marcello Malpighi*, born at Bologna, held for some time the chief medical chair there, in the university at Pisa, and at Messina. Being elected a fellow of the Royal Society, London, he communicated thereto many of his anatomical discoveries relative to the minute structure of animal bodies, the results of microscopic observations. At length, at the invitation of Innocent XII., he settled at Rome 1691; where he acted as physician, chamberlain, and 'domestic prelate,' to his holiness, and where he died, aged 66,

1694. Malpighi's works on physiology and vegetable anatomy are still highly regarded. *James Gregory*, born at Aberdeen, and educated at the Marischal college, turned his attention to astronomy, and became the inventor of the *reflecting telescope*, 1668, made known in his *Optica Promota*. He was involved in disputes with Huyghens and Newton, but without asperity on either side; and died respected for his great natural abilities and original mode of thinking, aged only 36, 1674. The *reflecting telescope*, or 'Gregorian construction,' exhibits a modification of the same theoretical principle as that on which the *refracting telescope* is constructed: but though, in an abstract point of view, simpler and more obvious than the latter, it required some further contrivance to reduce it to practice; and Gregory has the full merit of the invention. It is enough here to say that the *refracting telescope*, (the instrument as formed before the time of Gregory) supposing it possible to be used at so great a focal expansion, even of 1000 feet focus, could not be made to magnify with distinctness more than 1000 times; whereas a reflecting one, not exceeding 9 or 10 feet, will magnify 1200 times. *Sir William Dugdale*, born at Shustoke, Warwickshire, devoted himself to the study of antiquities, and was in 1638 appointed to a post in the Herald's office, London. He was with king Charles at the battle of Edgehill, and at the siege of Oxford; and after compounding for his estates, he employed himself in preparing for the press '*Monasticon Anglicanum*,' an interesting collection of all the foundation charters of the dissolved monasteries in England. At the Restoration he was made Norroy and then Garter king at arms, and knighted, and he died, aged 81, 1686.

Bartholine.—This medical family consisted of Caspar Bartholine, who held the anatomical chair at Copenhagen 11 years, was celebrated for his anatomical knowledge, and then took

holy orders. He died 1629. Thomas, his son, when in his father's chair at Copenhagen, was the first to give a precise account of the nature and offices of the lymphatics, 1653, which, however, had been named by Rudbeck, the Swedish professor at Upsal, 1652; and some controversy concerning the discovery arose. Thomas died 1680, and left a son Caspar, who, in like manner, filled the anatomical chair at Copenhagen, and enriched physiology by various works. *Sir Thomas Browne*, born in London, practised as a physician at Norwich, and became known throughout Europe by his work '*Religio Medici*,' being his own opinions, moral, religious, and metaphysical, wherein he strenuously advocates high-church and monarchical principles, and supports the existence of guardian angels, spectres, and witches. In another work, '*A Treatise on Vulgar Errors*,' he points out in a masterly way most of the sources of human error; and in his '*Urn Burial*,' he discovers much erudition on the subject of ancient and modern funeral rites. Charles II., on visiting Norwich, knighted him, 1671; and he died highly respected for his talents and extensive knowledge, aged 77, 1682. *Anthony à Wood*, born at Oxford, and educated at Merton College, is celebrated for his works on *Alma Mater*, entitled '*The History and Antiquities of the University of Oxford*,' translated into Latin under the direction of Dr. Fell, and '*Athenæ Oxonienses*,' or an account (in English) of almost all the authors educated at Oxford, and of many of those educated at Cambridge, up to his time. Reflecting, however, on the character of the deceased lord Clarendon, he was prosecuted in the vice-chancellor's court, and expelled till he recanted; and he was in like manner persecuted for his Jacobite tendency. He died, aged 63, 1695. His '*Athenæ*' has in it a store of hitherto unused biographical information; but from the hurried manner in which it was compiled, there is little doubt that the conflicting opi-

nions therein were scarcely his own. *Thomas Blood*, a disbanded officer of Cromwell's, famous for his daring crimes and good fortune, first distinguished himself by engaging in a conspiracy to surprise the castle of Dublin, which was defeated by the vigilance of the duke of Ormond, and some of his accomplices were executed. Escaping to England, he meditated revenge against Ormond, and actually seized him one night in his coach in St. James's-street; where he might have finished his purpose, if he had not studied refinements in his vengeance. He bound him on horseback behind one of his associates, resolving to hang him at Tyburn with a paper pinned to his breast; but when they got into the fields, the duke, in his efforts for liberty, threw himself and the assassin to whom he was fastened to the ground. While struggling with the villain in the mire, Ormond was rescued by his servants; but the authors of the attempt were not then discovered. A little after, in 1671, Blood formed a design of carrying off the crown and regalia from the Tower; a design to which he was prompted, as well by the surprising boldness of the enterprise, as by views of profit. He was very near succeeding. He had bound and wounded Edwards, the keeper of the jewel-office, and had got out of the Tower with his prey; but was overtaken and seized, with some of his associates. One of them was known to have been concerned in the attempt upon Ormond; and Blood was immediately concluded to be the ring-leader. When questioned, he frankly avowed the enterprise, but refused to discover his accomplices. Strange to say, king Charles, out of admiration for his conduct, not only pardoned him, but granted him an estate of 500*l.* a year in Ireland, encouraged his attendance about his person, and showed him so much countenance, that many persons applied to him for promoting their pretensions at court! Old Edwards, meanwhile, who had

bravely ventured his life, and had been wounded in defending the crown and regalia, was forgotten and neglected. Blood enjoyed his pension about 10 years; till being charged with fixing an imputation of a scandalous nature on the duke of Buckingham, he was thrown into prison, and died there, 1680.

Richard Busby, head of Westminster-school for fifty-five years, was educated in that seminary, and at Christchurch, Oxford, and had the satisfaction of bringing forward many distinguished ornaments of the country. So strict a disciplinarian was he, that when king Charles II. visited the school, he begged permission to wear his hat in his presence, lest his pupils should think there was a more important personage in the kingdom than himself; a request with which the good-tempered monarch, with much merriment, complied. Dr. Busby was very small in person, but possessed a dignity of manner which, combined as it was with high intellectual endowments, rendered him terrible to the rebellious portion of his scholars. In allusion to this it is said, that in a coffee-house one day, an Irish baronet, of immense stature, who had been one of his idle pupils, accosted him with the ironical impertinence, 'Will you permit me to pass to my seat, O giant?' when the doctor politely making way, replied, 'Certainly, O pigmy!' 'Oh, sir,' said the baronet, 'my expression referred to the size of your intellect. 'And mine,' retorted the doctor, 'to the size of your own.' Dr. Busby died, aged 88, 1695. *Valentine Greatracks*, an Irish gentleman of good family, who had the singular gift of healing many disorders of the human frame by his touch. At the Restoration, he was made clerk of the peace for the county of Cork, and a magistrate; which functions he discharged with integrity and a good name. In a narrative of his own he states, 'About four years since, I had an impulse which frequently suggested to me, that there was bestowed on me the

gift of curing the king's evil, which, for the extraordinariness thereof, I thought fit to conceal for some time; but at length I told my wife; but her reply was, that it was an idle imagination. But to prove the contrary, one William Maher, of the parish of Lismore, brought his son to my wife, who used to distribute medicines in charity to the neighbours; and she came and told me, that I had now an opportunity of trying my impulse, for there was one at hand that had the evil grievously in the eyes, throat, and cheeks; whereupon I laid my hands upon the places afflicted, and prayed to God, for Jesus' sake, to heal him. In a few days afterwards, the father brought his son so changed, that the eye was almost quite whole; and to be brief, (to God's glory I speak it) within a month he was perfectly healed, and so continues.' He subsequently cured another patient, to the utter astonishment of the physician of the neighbourhood, who said, if he healed that person, he would not question but he might cure all manner of diseases. When the intelligence of so extraordinary a gift had spread about, an immense number of people, not only from the adjoining parts of Ireland, but from England, resorted to him; insomuch that his stables, barns, and other outhouses, were filled with the sick of all sorts of diseases. In the mean time the clergy of the diocese of Waterford took up the matter seriously, and the dean of Lismore cited Greatracks to the bishop's court; where appearing, on being asked where was his licence for curing, he replied 'that though he had no such licence, he knew no law which prohibited any person from doing what good he could to his neighbour.' He was nevertheless prohibited from laying hand on any for the future. Greatracks, however, proceeded in his career, until his fame reached the higher orders in England; and he was entreated to come over and cure the viscountess Conway of an obstinate headache. Greatracks fairly ac-

knowledge that he did not succeed in relieving the noble patient for whose sake he came; but, honoured and munificently treated by lord Conway, he cured many in the neighbourhood of Ragley, and thence was summoned to London by Charles, who recommended him to the notice of the court. In London he was visited by the excellent Boyle, who was an eye-witness of many of his cures; and though Dr. Lloyd, chaplain of the Charter House, the lively St. Evremond, who happened then to be in England, and many wits of the time, endeavoured to write him down, Greatracks was enabled, by the testimonials of both physicians and divines, to rise superior to his detractors; especially when a Mr. Love, who had at first ridiculed him, stepped forward to assure the world, that he was witness to his cure of a person who had suffered with epileptic fits, which no medical skill had been able to stem. Mr. Thoresby, of the Royal Society, after witnessing his power in eradicating some serious affections of members of his own family, detailed the particulars in the philosophical transactions of that society; and, after a close investigation, that learned body decided, 'that Mr. Greatracks was possessed of a sanative contagion in his body, which had an antipathy to some particular diseases, and not to others.' Bishop Rust, Cudworth, author of the 'Intellectual System,' Dr. Whichcot, Dr. Wilkins, Dr. Simon Patrick, and others, whose word cannot be disputed, bore testimony, by their writing, to the extraordinary cures he effected; and an extract from lord Conway's letter (the husband of the lady in whose case he failed) to his brother, Sir George Rawdon, dated Ragley, February 9th, 1665, will show at once that Greatracks could not have been a willing impostor. 'Mr. Greatracks hath been here a fortnight to-morrow, and my wife is not the better for him; but very few others have failed under his hands, of many hundreds that he hath touched in these parts. This

morning, the bishop of Gloucester recommended to me a prebendary's son in his diocese, to be brought to him for a leprosy from head to foot, which hath been judged incurable above ten years, and in my chamber he cured him perfectly; that is, from a moist humour, 'twas immediately dried up, and began to fall off: the itching was quite gone, and the heat of it taken away. The youth was transported to admiration. The bishop saw this as well as myself, but it is not the hundredth part; and after all, I am far from thinking that his cures are at all miraculous. His efficiency extends not to *all* diseases, and he doth also dispatch some with a great deal of ease, and others not without a great deal of pain.' The labour here alluded to may be explained by Mr. Thoresby, who, in describing his own brother's cure of a painful affection of the head and back, says, 'Mr. Greatracks gave present ease to his head, by only stroking it with his hand. He then fell to rub his back, which he most complained of; but the pain immediately fled to his right thigh; then he pursued it with his hand to his knee, from thence to his leg, ankle, and foot, and at last to his great toe. As it fell lower, it grew more violent, and when in his toe, it made him roar out; but upon rubbing it there, it vanished.' Mr. Greatracks died, aged 54, 1682.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1649, Mohammed IV. POPES.—1655, Alexander VII.; 1667, Clement IX.; 1670, Clement X.; 1676, Innocent XI. FRANCE.—1643, Louis XIV. SWEDEN.—1654, Charles X. 1660, Charles XI. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1648, Frederick III.; 1670, Christiern V. PORTUGAL.—1656, Afonso VI.; 1667, Pedro, regent; 1683, Pedro II. SPAIN.—1621, Philip IV.; 1665, Charles II. GERMANY.—1658, Leopold I. POLAND.—1648, John II. (Casimir;) 1669, Michael I. (Koribut); 1674, John III. (Sobieski). RUSSIA.—1645, Alexis, I.; 1676, Feodor III.; 1682, Ivan V. and Peter I. (the Great).

PERBIA.—1641, Abbas II.; 1666, Suliman. DELHI.—1658, Aurungzeb, or Alemgir I. CHINA.—1643, Shun-chi; 1661, Kang-hi. HUNGARY.—1647, Ferdinand IV. emperor; 1655, Leopold, emperor; 1682, Tekeli, usurper.

REIGN CLXVIII.

JAMES II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1685 TO 1688—3 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—James II., the brother of Charles II., was born at St. James's Palace, 1633. After the taking of Oxford in 1646, he escaped in female attire to Holland, where his sister, the princess of Orange, protected him. When twenty he entered the French army, and served under Turenne; and soon after, he joined the Spaniards under Condé. At the Restoration he changed services, and became high admiral; in which capacity he beat the Dutch under Opdam, who was blown up with his ship. James, now duke of York, behaved in this action with great bravery; but he was less successful in combating the Dutch fleet under De Ruyter, 1672; though he came off with honour, and the enemy retired from the fight. The duchess of York (Clarendon's daughter) dying a Roman catholic, and James openly confessing himself to be of that faith, popular hatred soon assailed him, and he was obliged for a while to retire to Brussels; but he was afterwards intrusted with many important affairs, and especially with the punishment of the Scottish Covenanters, whom he treated with great rigour. Even his brother checked him on that occasion with the observation, 'James, I am now too old to care to go on travel again; but you may go if you please.'

By his first wife, Anne Hyde, daughter of the earl of Clarendon, whom he married 1660, James had eight children, six of whom died in infancy, but both the survivors, *Mary* and *Anne*, became successively queens of England in their own right. By his second consort, Mary d'Este, daughter of Alfonso, duke of Modena, he had seven more children; but six of those also died young, and the only survivor was the unhappy Pretender, prince *James Francis Edward*, called after his father's expulsion the chevalier de St. George. After his defeat at the Boyne, king James retired to the convent of La Trappe, at St. Germain's, and lived in every respect as one of the monks; and dying, August 6, 1701, aged 60, he was buried in the Benedictine church at Paris. If we consider the personal character of James, rather than his public conduct, we may safely pronounce him more unfortunate than criminal. He had the chief of those qualities which form a good citizen, and was ever dutiful as a subject. As a parent, he was affectionate, and indulgent; and it has fallen to the lot of few fathers to be deserted by their children in the hour of adversity, as he was. Severe but open in his enmities, steady in his councils, diligent in his schemes, brave in his enterprises, faithful, sincere, and honourable in his dealings with all men—such was the character with which the duke of York mounted the throne of England. In that high station, his frugality of public money was remarkable, his industry exemplary, his application to naval affairs successful, his encouragement of trade judicious, his jealousy of national honour laudable; and had he but possessed the political tact of less virtuous men, or the cunning of his son-in-law, and supplanter, he might have remained safe in his kingdom, and have passed an honourable and happy reign.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—The character of James, while duke of York, was so well known to the people, that they were not surprised to find him go

openly to mass, and surround himself with catholic peers on his accession, 1685. They even saw him attempt absolute power, by levying the customs and excise without a parliament; yet all this they regarded little, so long as the nation was permitted to enjoy those religious and civil privileges which had been forced from the crown in the two preceding reigns. When, however, James sent an agent to Rome, intimating that England would return to the bosom of the Church, disturbances commenced; and the duke of Monmouth, natural son of the late king, attempting to seize the crown, paid for his rebellion with his life, five months after James had mounted the throne. Roman catholics were now everywhere advanced to power. Ireland was put entirely into their hands, and Scotland was governed by a few noblemen who had become converts to the same faith. By a declaration in favour of liberty of conscience, James next sought to gain the favour of the dissenters; but, strange to say, he would not allow the same freedom to members of the church of England, and cited such of its clergy as had opposed the old forms, to an ecclesiastical court, where they were made to apologize, or were fined. A still bolder measure followed, in the publication of an indulgence in matters of religion, which was ordered to be read by the clergy in all the churches of the kingdom. Seven bishops thereupon met, and drew up a loyal and humble remonstrance against the ordinance; which step being considered as an act of rebellion, the prelates were ordered to the Tower. The result of their trial and acquittal forms an interesting portion of our history. All confidence was now nearly destroyed between James and his subjects; and a plan was concerted, by a mixed party of whigs and torics, to bring over William, prince of Orange, who had married the king's eldest daughter, in order that he might settle the quarrel, if possible. In November, 1688, therefore, that prince arrived with a fleet in Torbay, and landed with many troops. Recollection of the severe punishments which had visited them for Monmouth's rebellion, deterred the people of the west from joining readily in what they supposed a fresh attack on the throne; but as the prince's visit was affirmed to be merely a mediatory one, many men of rank went over to the Orange side, and the army began to desert by entire regiments. Even the king's favourite, Churchill, joined the prince; and James, who had proceeded as far as Salisbury to attack his enemy, found it advisable to return. From this time, he daily saw himself abandoned by those whom he had most trusted; and when informed that his daughter Anne, married to the prince of Denmark, had put herself into the hands of the Orangists, the unhappy father, in agony of heart, exclaimed, 'God help me: my own children have forsaken me!'

Incapable of any vigorous resolution, and finding all his overtures of accommodation disregarded, James resolved to quit the country; and first sending off the queen and her infant prince to France, himself took ship in the Thames, December 12. The vessel putting in at Feversham, in Kent, the people insulted and detained him: he was however protected by the gentry, who advised his return to London, and accordingly escorted him thither. Strange to say, he was received with acclamations on re-entering his capital, and honourably lodged, as before, at Whitehall; but when William, fearful that he might be induced to reassume the reins of government, had used every means but force to drive him from the kingdom, James, overpowered by the defection of his two daughters, his nephew, and his son-in-law, asked leave to retire to Rochester, December 23rd; and embarking immediately on his arrival there for Picardy, he was received at St. Germain's with great respect and kindness by Louis XIV.

This act of James is usually called The Abdication, and occurred December 23, 1688. From that day until February 13, 1689, occurred the

first English interregnum since the Conquest. Popular consent and a coronation were all that was deemed necessary to constitute right in the early periods : but the sanction of parliament, however corrupt the commons assembly, was now indispensably requisite to the constitution of regal authority.

EVENTS.

THE DUKE OF MONMOUTH'S REBELLION, 1685.—Notwithstanding the ill success of this prince's former attempt upon the throne, he resolved on trusting to the support of the populace, with whom he had always been a great favourite. The earl of Argyle, supporting his cause in Scotland, put himself at the head of 2500 men ; but a body of James's forces coming against him, his army fell away, and he himself was taken prisoner by a peasant, who found him hiding in a pool of water, which came up to his neck. He was publicly executed at Edinburgh. Meanwhile Monmouth, whose army had increased to 6000 men, though he had scarcely a hundred on landing in Dorset, went through the ceremony of regal inauguration at Taunton ; and hearing of the advance of the royalist forces upon Bridgewater, he ventured to give them battle at Sedgemoor. He was, however, defeated with the loss of 2000 men ; fled from the field above 20 miles, till his horse sank under him ; and was ultimately found lying at the bottom of a ditch, covered with fern. He burst into tears when captured by his enemies, and soon after wrote a submissive letter to James, entreating him to spare his brother's son. James saw him, but was inexorable to his prayers ; and Monmouth, resuming his noble demeanour, prepared for death. This favourite of the people was attended to the scaffold on Tower-hill with great lamentations. He warned the executioner not to fall into the error he had committed in beheading Russel, where it had been necessary to repeat the blow ; a precaution which served only to dismay the officer, who, striking again and again to no purpose, was about to evade the performance of his duty, when the

sheriff forced him to proceed. The earl of Feversham, and especially one colonel Kirke, behaved with great severity to the followers of Monmouth, hanging them without trial ; and judge Jeffreys caused to be executed, by constantly intimidating the juries, no less than 251 in Dorchester, Exeter, Taunton, and Wells. James used to designate this as 'Jeffreys' campaign.'

TRIAL OF THE SEVEN BISHOPS, 1688.

—These were Sancroft of Canterbury, Lloyd of St. Asaph, Turner of Ely, Ken of Bath and Wells, Lake of Chichester, White of Peterborough, and Trelawney of Bristol. Since Monmouth's rebellion, James had every summer encamped his army on Hounslow-heath, that he might overawe his mutinous people ; and on the day of the acquittal, he had retired, after reviewing the troops, into the tent of lord Feversham, the general. Here, on a sudden, he was surprised to hear a great uproar in the camp, attended with the most extravagant symptoms of joy. On inquiring the cause, the general told him it was nothing but the rejoicing of the soldiers for the acquittal of the bishops.' 'Call you that nothing?' said the king, 'but so much the worse for them.'

LANDING OF THE PRINCE OF ORANGE, 1688.—William's printed plea for invading England was, 'that he might redress the grievances of the people, and give them a legal and free parliament, which might provide for the liberty and safety of the nation.' Not a word of *supplanting* his father-in-law was mentioned by him, or understood by the nobility, clergy, or gentry generally ; and had so monstrous a design been intimated publicly, the prince would surely have at once paid dearly for his project.

In three days after publishing his declaration, he, with a fleet of 500 vessels, and a force of 14,000 men, sailed from Helvoetsluys for the English coast. The people in the main knew nothing of the design, and the Dutch got to Exeter without any addition to their ranks; when lord Colchester, with a few of his soldiers, joined them. Lord Lovelace, when about to do the same, was seized by the militia; but when the king's general, Feversham, was told by many officers that they could not fight *against* the

prince of Orange, though they would not fight on his side, desertion became general. Lord Churchill, who had been raised from a page to a high command by James's free bounty, now deserted his unhappy master, and encouraged prince George of Denmark to do the like. Prince George's wife Anne, James's own daughter, thereupon fled from London, and caused that agonized exclamation of the monarch, 'God help me: my own children have forsaken me!'

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER SULEIMAN III.—On the deposition of Mohammed IV., 1687, his brother Suleiman was taken from that prison to which his unhappy relative was committed, and declared sultan. Ahmed Kuprigli was still vizir; and the emperor Leopold continuing hostilities, he applied his whole care to the raising of a competent force, and providing warlike stores. The upright and blameless character of the vizir, as well as his tried courage, roused the better class of the Turks; but finding the main body of the people intimidated, and unwilling to oppose the enemy he issued a proclamation, stating 'that as he found it necessary not to trust the command of the army against the haughty Germans out of his own hands, so he would not employ in this expedition any soldiers forced into the service, knowing that the will was of more value with God than the deed; and he would only put the Moslems in mind that, by the precepts of God and his prophet, every one is commanded neither to avoid martyrdom, nor to despair of success against infidels.' Having thus roused the enthusiasm of the multitude, they flocked in great numbers to his standard, the Germans were in several battles defeated, and almost every important place, which had in recent years fallen to them and the Poles, was recovered. In the midst of these successes, however, Suleiman died, 1691.

VENICE UNDER MARCO ANTONIO JUSTINIANI, &c.—This doge succeeded, 1684, just as the oligarchy had commenced a new war with the Ottoman Porte, occasioned by the constant encroachments of the Turks. On receiving intelligence of the defeat of the latter by Sobieski, under the walls of Vienna, the senate again constituted Morsini, who had so well defended Candia during the latter part of the siege, commander of the Venetian fleet and army; and that general sustained his reputation by the conquest of the Morea, which was formally ceded to Venice by Mustafa II. at the peace of Carlowitz 1700, Andrea Mocenigo being then doge.

SCOTLAND UNDER JAMES VII.—The Scottish parliament met under the duke of Queensbury as commissioner, on the accession of James II. to the English throne; when that king was fully acknowledged as James VII. of Scotland, and invested with a solid and absolute authority, of which no one could participate, save in dependence on or by commission from him. The party of Argyle instantly took fire at what was called 'this so signal violation of national rights'; and that earl arrived from Holland 1685, with 2500 men in arms (who had with difficulty been got together) to maintain the privileges of Scotland. The privy council, however, apprized of his intention, raised 22,000 militia in addition to the regular forces; and

Argyle had no sooner appeared, than his arms and ammunition were seized, his provisions cut off, the marquis of Athol pressed him on one side, lord Charles Murray on the other, the duke of Gordon hung upon his rear, and the earl of Dunbarton met him in front. In a few days his little army, wandering about, was entirely dispersed, himself taken prisoner in disguise near Renfrew, put in irons, carried to the cross of Edinburgh, and executed. The presbyterians were the next to take offence, on occasion of the penal laws against papists being superseded; the earl of Perth having opened a chapel for the private celebration of mass at Holyrood House, and the bishops having assented to the restoration of the old forms. Queensbury having retired from the council, the covenanters once more appeared in arms in various parts of the country; and though put down from time to time with severity, the hopes of support from Holland, whither many of the nobles who favoured the covenant had fled to solicit the aid of the prince of Orange, daily gained strength, until a diffusion of the same spirit throughout England convinced the earls of Perth and Melfort, who were now at the head of affairs, of their danger. No sooner was it known that William of Orange

had landed at Torbay, than the Scots of the southern and western parts rose in arms, the civil authority of the old government entirely ceased, and the students of the university of Glasgow publicly burned the effigies of the pope, and of the various Scottish prelates. The flame of rebellion spreading, the apprentices and some of the citizens of Edinburgh, aided at last even by the magistrates and town-guard, drove away a company of soldiers who protected Holyrood House, rifled the chapel, and made a bonfire of the images and books. The earl of Perth, in attempting to make his escape from the kingdom, was discovered, and cast into prison; and everywhere the furious covenanters seized the persons of the episcopal clergy, carried them in mock procession about their parishes, tore their gowns, brutally beat them, and after threatening them with death if they ventured into their churches, drove their wives and children from the parsonage-houses into the fields and roads. At length terror brought over the mass of the people to treat with the prince of Orange, though a few remained firm to the interests of James: among the latter were the duke of Gordon (governor of Edinburgh Castle), Graham of Claverhouse, and the bishops.

EMINENT PERSONS.

THOMAS KEN, born at Berkhamstead, Herts, was educated at Winchester, and New College, Oxford. Bishop Morley became his patron after he had taken orders, and he obtained a living in the Isle of Wight, and a stall at Westminster. In 1679 he went to Holland as chaplain to the princess of Orange, the daughter of James II., and in 1683 accompanied lord Dartmouth when he went against Tangier; and in every station he exhibited a conscientious propriety of conduct, and an unyielding morality. After being made chaplain to Charles II., with residence at Winchester, he was desired by a royal messenger to get his house ready to receive Mrs.

Nell Gwynne, as his Majesty was coming to the city; but thinking the king's mistress an unsuitable inmate, he positively refused to admit her. When Charles was informed of his conduct, he coolly replied, 'Then Mrs. Gwynne must find lodgings elsewhere;' and to the surprise of his courtiers, he promoted this conscientious supporter of the dignity of his character to the see of Bath and Wells, 1685. In the month following, the prelate attended the death-bed of Charles II., and sat with him three whole days and nights, watching proper intervals to suggest pious and appropriate thoughts. He also received the last declaration of faith

of that monarch, which, according to modern notions, constituted Charles a Romanist, although such was not the conclusion of either the bishop or the court. Ken's firmness of principle was again exemplified in signing the petition to James II., for which, with the other bishops, he was sent to the Tower; and it was still further displayed at the Revolution, when he refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, and was in consequence deprived of his bishopric, 1690. Retiring from public life, he devoted the rest of his days to literary and pious pursuits; and was so much respected by queen Anne, that she granted him a pension of 200*l.* per annum. Wishing always to be duly impressed with a sense of his mortality, he used to carry his shroud in his portmanteau when he travelled, and to place it among his ordinary linen when at home; and it was his fine observation, that the habitual remembrance of eternal judgment is a sovereign remedy against all vanity and pride. His death occurred at the age of 74, at the seat of his friends, the Thynnes, at Longleat, Wilts, where he often resided for months together, 1711.

JOHN TILLOTSON, son of a rigid calvinist, was born at Sowerby, Yorkshire, and educated at Clare Hall, Cambridge. The perusal of Chillingworth's works removed the principles of puritanical instructors; and on taking orders, he became curate to his friend (afterwards bishop) Wilkins, 1656. At the Restoration he was made dean of Canterbury; and attending lord Russel at his execution, he urged him to admit the doctrine of non-resistance. His own subsequent denial of that tenet by accepting the archbishopric of Canterbury, on the suspension of Sancroft for refusing to take the oath of allegiance to William, subjected him to great and deserved censure; and the whole body of conscientious non-jurors directed their anger against him. He died, aged 64, 1694, of palsy, in the arms of his friend Nelson, leaving nothing to his widow but the copy of his ser-

mons, which sold for 2500 guineas; to which the king added an annuity of 600*l.* So admired have these very elegant discourses been, that they have been translated into all the continental languages.

RICHARD BAXTER was son of a person of small fortune, and born at Rowton, Salop. After an education among puritans, he was taken into the family of Sir Henry Herbert, master of the revels, as an amanuensis; but being disgusted with the gay scenes thus opened to him, he returned home, and in 1638 took orders in the church of England. The imposition of the 'et cetera' oath, 1639, which compelled all holding livings to a fixed declaration of opinion respecting church-government, ceremonies, &c., detached him from the establishment; and joining the independents of Kidderminster, he became a preacher among them, 1640. On the breaking out of the Great Rebellion, he sided with the parliament; and after the battle of Naseby, accepted the chaplaincy of colonel Whalley's regiment, and saw much active service. During this period he was, according to his own statement, a secret friend to the church, and repressed sectaries as much as he was able. In 1647 ill health made him resign the army; and his recovery was marked by his frequent preaching against the covenanters of Scotland. He even urged the soldiery not to oppose the Scottish troops who came into England under Charles II., 1651; and assured Cromwell, in a conference very characteristic of both parties, that the people were opposed to his usurpation, and thought the ancient monarchy a blessing. In a sermon, too, which he preached before the Protector, he told him that the toleration of separatists and sectarians was the great evil of his government. Holding civil liberty to be of secondary consideration to true religion, and the independent form to be that true religion, he accepted the offer of Charles II., and became one of his chaplains, but declined the see of

Hereford. The king, however, would not permit his return to Kidderminster; in 1672, he was forbidden to officiate at a meeting-house which he had built in London; and in 1682 was fined 195*l*. for preaching five sermons within five miles of a corporation. In 1685, after the accession of James II., Judge Jeffreys condemned him, with much injustice, to an imprisonment of two years, for his paraphrase on the New Testament, on the ground that he had therein seditiously opposed episcopacy; but in six months king James liberated him, and he thereupon retired to privacy, and died, aged 76, 1691. Some of his works, particularly his 'Saints' Everlasting Rest,' written in a forcible style, have been deservedly popular, and are still much cherished by various classes of dissenters. During all his troubles, in and out of prison, Baxter had that greatest of earthly blessings, an affectionate and consoling wife; but for whose unshrinking firmness and constant solicitude he declared he should have died. As head of a sect, Baxter took a stand betwixt the Calvinists and Arminians. He maintained, and had many followers in his doctrine, that the Saviour died for some in particular, though for all generally; and thus endeavoured to unite the principles of an unconditional election and a provisional salvation. A body of Baxterians long acknowledged these distinctive opinions; and the nonconformists, for some time after the Revolution, were clearly divided into Calvinists, Baxterians, and Arminians.

ROBERT BOYLE, fourteenth child of the earl of Cork, was born at Lismore in Ireland, in the year that the great Bacon, whom he so much resembled, died, and was educated at Eton, under Wotton, and lastly at Geneva. After visiting Italy and France, he returned to England 1644; and devoted his time to chemistry. In the rooms of Wilkins, warden of Wadham, he planned the Royal Society, 1654; in 1678, he

made those improvements in the air-pump which have entitled him to the name of its inventor; and in 1679 he was pressed by Charles II. to take holy orders, and receive a bishopric. He however declined, on account of his nervous and hypochondriac temperament, which for forty years never permitted him to feel in spirits. In his person he was tall and slender; and so delicate was his constitution, that he never went out of doors without a cloak, declaring that, unless in the hottest days of summer, he knew not what it was to feel warm. He also refused a peerage; and at length died, aged 65, 1691. 'Boyle,' says Boerhaave, 'the ornament of his age and country, succeeded to the genius and inquiries of the great Verulam. Which' (continues he), 'of all Boyle's writings shall I recommend? All of them. To him we owe the secrets of fire, air, water, animals, vegetables, fossils: so that from his works may be reduced the whole system of natural knowledge.' To private charities this excellent man, who died a bachelor, devoted 1000*l*. yearly; and he founded a lecture at St. Paul's, now known as 'Boyle's Lecture.' The preacher was not apparently intended by the testator to defend the church of England so much as Christianity, against notorious infidels; and eight sermons were to be preached by him in the year. The erudite Bentley was the first preacher; and in the present day the being selected to preach 'Boyle's Lectures' is regarded both as a touchstone of the peculiar church-opinions of the lecturer, and as a stepping-stone to preferment. *The Air Pump* was invented by Otto Von Guericke, 1654. This philosophical instrument for removing the air out of any vessel, has been of the highest service to chemistry. The *presence* of air in various substances is detected by it. A glass of any liquid, placed under what is called the receiver of the pump, will give out bubbles of air, as soon as the exhaustion (as the abs-

traction of air is called) begins. A shrivelled apple will be restored to apparent freshness by the expanding in this way of the air which it contains. The *pressure* of air is shown, if, when the receiver is open at both ends, the upper orifice be stopped by the hand; as in that case, when exhaustion begins, the pressure of the exterior air will prevent the removal of the hand. The *weight* of the air is proved by exhausting a copper ball, properly constructed, of its air; after which it will weigh less than before. The *elasticity* of air may be shown by placing a bladder, shrivelled up, and tied at the mouth, under the receiver: as exhaustion takes place, it will expand gradually until it bursts.

JACQUES BOSSUET was born at Dijon of a good family; and after an education among the Jesuits, appeared as a preacher at Paris, where he excited great attention by his funeral orations. In 1661 Louis XIV. made him preceptor to the dauphin, and on the completion of the prince's education, gave him the bishopric of Meaux. He died, aged 77, 1704. The funeral sermons of Bossuet are still considered as surpassing all other productions of the kind, in sublimity and pathos. His style of preaching was lofty, free, and animated: he seldom wrote more than the heads of his discourses, and trusted to his own copious and commanding eloquence to give force to his sentiments. In his defence of the old form of religion, he argued greatly for the re-union of the English with the Roman church; in which cause he made proposals that were not relished by pope Innocent XI., whose claim to infallibility he was bold enough to oppose.

LOUIS BOURDALOUE, a Jesuit, born at Bourges, became perhaps the most solid and logical preacher the French nation ever possessed. Louis XIV. was among his auditors; and for 24 years his sermons were listened to with undiminished delight by overflowing congregations, in the seasons of Advent and Lent. After the

revocation of the edict of Nantes, he was despatched in 1686 by Louis into Languedoc, to make converts of the protestants; and the effect of his labours was shown by the bringing back of all the people of Montpellier to the Romish faith. Towards the close of his life, he gave up his whole time, like Bossuet, to attending on the sick, visiting the prisons, and other works of charity; and he died in the same year with that eloquent prelate, 1704, aged 72. As Bossuet was superior in declamatory eloquence, and in high and sublime expression of thought, so Bourdaloue was extraordinary in his power of going into the very profundity of reflection: all his productions abound in sound reasoning, dialectic sequence, and deep theology.

SEBASTIAN VAUBAN, born of a respectable family in France, entered the army early, and became distinguished by his genius for fortification. No siege took place without his having something to do with it; and he was at length appointed commissioner-general of fortifications 1678. He died at Paris, aged 74, 1707. He fortified more than 300 ancient citadels, built 30 new ones, directed 53 sieges, and was present at 140 battles; and as the modern system of fortification is wholly his own, a brief description of the nature and parts of the works he thus perfected, will not be here out of place.

Fortification is either field or permanent. *Field fortification* has for its object the protecting of camps, villages, posts, passages of rivers, and the construction of such works as may be required to aid the operations of an army in the field; and the trenches and offensive works usually executed in carrying on a siege are field fortifications. *Permanent fortification* is the art of shutting in a piece of ground, or a city, of any form whatever, by defensive masses of earth and ditches, in a manner the most advantageous for making the greatest possible resistance, with a garrison proportioned to its size,

against the attacks of superior numbers. Every piece of ground to be fortified is supposed to be surrounded by a polygon, either regular or irregular, called the polygon of fortification; and all the works constructed upon any one side of it, constitute a *front of fortification*. The great mass of earth thrown up from the ditch inwards, to give the defenders a commanding surface for their cannon and musketry, is the *rampart*; and the covering shot-proof mass of earth on the exterior edge of the rampart, is the *parapet*. The parapet is $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet high, that it may cover the defenders behind it; and a step of earth is raised at the foot of its interior slope, sufficiently high to enable the defenders standing on it to fire over the parapet with ease; this step is the *banquette*. Immediately without the ditches of the place, there is a road of communication all round the fortress, usually 30 feet wide; having on its exterior edge a covering mass of earth eight feet high, which slopes off gently towards the country; this road is the *covered way*, and the sloping mass the *glacis*. The first range of ramparts and parapets that enclose the place is the *body* of the place, or *enciente*; and all the works between the enciente and the covered way are *outworks*. *Advanced works* are such as are constructed beyond the covered way and the glacis, but within the range of the musketry of the main-works. *Detached works* are those which it sometimes becomes necessary to construct beyond the range of the defensive musketry of the main works; and as a constant and steady communication with them cannot be kept up during a siege, they are consequently left chiefly to their own resources. In permanent fortification, the sides of ditches are supported by walls of masonry, or *revetments*: these are strengthened interiorly by buttresses at 15 or 18 feet apart, called *counterforts*. The side of a ditch next to the place is the *escarp*, and that next to the country is the *counterscarp*. The top of the revetment is usually covered

with a flat stone, to protect the masonry from being injured by rain: this stone projects about a foot beyond the rest of the masonry, and is called the *cordón*. The general level of the ground upon which the works of a fortification are constructed is called the *plane of site*, whether it be horizontal, or oblique to the horizon, as on the general slope of a hill. The general height to which the defensive masses of earth are raised is called the *relief*; and the directions in which the masses are laid out, constitute the *outline*, or *tracing* of the fortification. The guns, when mounted on their carriages, standing $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet high only from the ground, with a parapet of $7\frac{1}{2}$ feet high before them, openings called *embrasures* are cut through the parapets, to permit them to fire in the directions required. Guns in battery stand at 18 feet apart; and the solid part of the parapet between two embrasures is the *merlon*. As embrasures limit the power of the gun, a platform is raised in rear of the parapet, when guns are required to range freely over the surface of the country before them, of sufficient height and breadth to permit their being run out over the crest of the parapet, and so pointed in any direction; and guns in this position are said to be *en-barbette*. In constructing ramparts, it is necessary to remember that the natural slope at which earth of common tenacity will stand is 45° . In examining the outline of a fortress, it is seen that some angles point outwards towards the country, and others inwards towards the place: the former are *saliant*, and the latter are *re-entering angles*. A *bastion* is a work having two faces and two flanks, the angles being all saliant; and the line of rampart that joins the flanks of two bastions together is the *curtain*. The *ravelin*, or demi-lune, is a work having two faces, forming a saliant angle, placed beyond the main-ditch opposite to the curtain, and separated from the covered way by a ditch that runs into the main ditch. The *tenaille* is a low work in the main ditch,

before the curtain and between the flanks of the half bastions of a front of fortification : it is usually 16 yards in thickness, and reveted with masonry all round. A *citadel* is a small strong fort, constructed either within the place, or on the most inaccessible part of its general outline ; it is intended as a refuge for the garrison, in which to prolong the defence after the place has fallen, or to hold out for the best terms of capitulation. Citadels are generally in positions that command the interior of the place, and are therefore useful in overawing a population that might otherwise strive to shorten the length of a siege, during which the inhabitants are always great sufferers. A *cunette* is a small ditch in the middle of a dry ditch, in order to keep it drained ; and a *caponniere* is a parapet placed in a dry ditch, in order to cover the defenders in passing across the ditch from one work to another, and it has a banquette to furnish a fire of musketry upon the ditch.—Brass guns, being much lighter than iron ones, are better calculated for field service ; but iron guns being stronger, will stand a heavier firing, and larger charges, and are therefore better calculated for the constant heavy firing of sieges. As a proof of this, in the last sieges in Spain, brass guns could never support a heavier fire than 120 rounds in 24 hours, and were rarely used to batter at distances exceeding 300 yards ; whereas with iron guns, three times that number of rounds were fired with effect from three times the distance, for several consecutive days, without any other injury than the enlargement of their vents. At the siege of St. Sebastian in 1818, several of the iron pieces bore the discharge of 9000 balls in uninterrupted succession, without experiencing any material damage. *Howitzers* do not differ much externally from guns ; like them, they turn upon trunnions ; but their especial use is to fire buildings, to reach troops behind hills or parapets, to bound their shells along lines, and against cavalry, to breach mud

walls, by exploding their shells in them, &c. They project common shells, common and spherical case-shot, carcasses, and, if necessary, round shot. *Carronades* are short light iron guns : they differ from guns and howitzers in having no trunnions, being fastened to their carriage by a loop underneath ; they are chiefly used in the arming of ships, and enable ships to throw heavy shot at close quarters, without overloading their decks with heavy guns : on shore, they are used in the same way, and for the same purpose as howitzers.—*Mortars* differ from guns, in having their trunnions placed behind the vent ; they are short pieces, and are for projecting shells at high angles ; they also throw carcasses and fire-balls. Shells projected from mortars at 45° of elevation, make a high curve in their flight, and fall with their full gravity, and nearly vertically, upon the object to be struck ; thus forcing in the strongest buildings, and, bursting at the same time, they fire every thing around, their splinters also being very destructive. As mortars rest upon solid beds, they are only fitted for permanent batteries, as those erected in the attack and defence of fortified places ; if there be time and opportunity of using them in the field, they are always formidable. A *shell* is a hollow iron ball with a fuze-hole in it to receive the fuze, which is a plug of wood, in whose cavity powder, properly prepared to burn slowly, is placed. On firing the piece, the fuze ignites, and continues to burn during its flight ; and being cut so as to burn out as the shell falls on the object, the powder in the shell ignites, and scatters the fragments around. *Hand-grenades* are shells about 3 lbs. weight, thrown from the hand by practised men, hence the name 'grenadiers.' As soon as the fuze is lighted, the grenadier naturally desires to get rid of it, and it requires well-trained men to use the weapon coolly. Grenades are never thrown upon an enemy on level ground ; as the splinters would be as dangerous to those who used

them, as to the opposing party. They are exceedingly useful for throwing over parapets, into unflanked ditches, and upon storming parties; likewise in the defence of stockades, houses, barricades, streets, &c.; and they are sometimes quilted together like grape-shot, fuze outwards, to be thrown from mortars for clearing works of their defenders. *Carcasses* are shells having three fuze-holes; they are projected from mortars, howitzers, and guns, and filled with a peculiar composition, which burns with great power and fury from 8 to 10 minutes; the carcass shells do not burst, but the flame rushes out of the three plug-holes, firing everything within its influence. All *shot* is of iron, and solid; round-shot are sometimes heated in furnaces, and fired red-hot, to ignite ships, buildings, &c.; grape-shot are a quantity of small shot, so arranged with an iron pin in the centre to fix them, as to represent a bunch of grapes, and when fired off, they scatter in all directions: canister-shot are tin canisters filled with small shot, and intended to scatter their destruction in the firing; spherical-shot are shells filled with musket-bullets, having a bursting charge of powder mixed with them, and are fired by means of a fuze, like a common shell. It is calculated that, in besieging a place, a breach of 108 feet (being an opening sufficiently great to warrant an assault) can be effected by an expenditure of 10,653 shot, thrown from the distance of 500 yards. Now, assuming the rate of firing at 20 rounds per hour, that expenditure will occupy 532 hours' firing of a single gun, or 35 hours' firing of a battery of 15 guns, iron 18 or 24 pounders. The breach is properly marked out by cutting a horizontal line or groove as near the bottom of the wall as possible, and at each extremity of it, by two perpendicular grooves: then, by deepening these cuts, and firing occasional salvos at the part to be brought down, it will soon fall. In this practice, the bottom of the wall is first fired at, and afterwards the guns are

brought to bear gradually upwards till the breach is completed. To fire high at first, would be to cover the lower part of the intended breach with rubbish, which would prevent its being got at afterwards. The sooner a breach is rendered practicable the better; as the defenders will have less time to retrench it, before the assault is given. It should be observed that the thin parapet of masonry that sufficed formerly to cover the archers and slingers, could be immediately cut through by shot projected by gunpowder; and if it were sufficiently thickened to be shot-proof (8 feet), it is very undesirable to make it so, since the splinters detached from masonry walls by shot striking them are at all times very dangerous, and do much execution amongst those who are near them. A parapet of earth has therefore superseded that of masonry; and as the shot from heavy guns can penetrate from 12 to 15 feet into a bank of earth, the thinnest part of the parapet at the top is made 18 feet, and its base occupies from 25 to 30 feet.—(*See Gunpowder.*)

CONTEMPORARIES.—*Daniel Morhof* (1639—1691) born at Wismar, became professor of history at Kiel, and was author of 'Polyhistor Litterarius,' and other valuable philosophical works. *Sir William Petty* (1623—1687) son of a clothier at Rumsey, Hants, became known by his practical works of plans for national taxation, for ships to go against wind and tide, and for discovering lead and other mines, practised some time as a physician, and was knighted by Charles II. *Barthélemi D'Herbelot* (1625—1695), born at Paris, a celebrated student of Eastern languages, became oriental interpreter to the court of France, and published the result of his labours in his famous 'Bibliothèque Orientale.' *William Sancroft* (1616—1693), born at Fresingfield, Suffolk, was archbishop of Canterbury, and one of the seven prelates committed to the Tower by James II. He, however, refused to take the oaths to

William III., when he found him break his promise of 'being a restorer of peace, not a supplanter,' and was on that account deprived. *George Jeffreys* (1626—1689) born of a good family at Acton, Denbighshire, became notorious by his severity, when employed by James II. to punish, as chief-justice, the followers of Monmouth. James made him a peer and lord-chancellor in reward; but at the Revolution he was seized by a party inimical to the deposed king, and without any charge imprisoned in the Tower till his death. *Esprit Fléchier*, (1632—1710) born near Avignon, became famous as a preacher of funeral orations, a species of pulpit-discourse for which there was a singular rage during the reign of Louis XIV., in France. Louis made him a bishop, observing that 'he had only kept him from advancement so long, from a selfish wish to detain him in Paris as a preacher, for his own soul's benefit.' Fléchier has the credit of bringing back all the protestants of his diocese (Nîmes) to the Old Church by his persuasive eloquence. *Jean de La-fontaine* (1621—1695) born at Châteaueu Thiéri, left the Oratoire to write for fame, and became the first of French fabulists. His 'Fables' are universally admired. The poet, however, was wayward, and wholly inclined to run counter to the rules

of society. He divorced his wife, left her to bring up his son, and when the latter was pointed out to him as his own child, at 14, only exclaimed, with the heartlessness of a French class to which Rousseau, the boasted 'man of nature,' subsequently belonged, 'Ah! j'en suis bien aise!' *Elias Ashmole* (1617—1692) born at Lichfield, was a commissioner of excise under Charles I., and after the battle of Worcester, devoted himself to trace the Roman roads of England mentioned in the itinerary of Antoninus. Since Oxford noticed him by giving him the degree of M.D. by diploma, he bestowed all his valuable MSS, coins, &c. on that university, and died, aged 75, 1692.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1649, Mohammed IV.; 1687, Suleiman III. POPE.—1676, Innocent XI. FRANCE.—1643, Louis XIV. RUSSIA.—1682, Iwan V. and Peter I. SWEDEN.—1660, Charles XI. DENMARK and NORWAY.—1670, Christian V. PORTUGAL.—1683, Pedro II. SPAIN.—1665, Charles II. GERMANY.—1658, Leopold I. POLAND.—1674, John Sobieski. PERSIA.—1666, Suliman. NETHERLANDS.—1647, William II.; 1650, De Witt; 1672, William III. DELHI.—1658, Aurungzeh. CHINA.—1661, Kanghi. HUNGARY.—1682, Tekeli, usurper; 1687, Joseph I., emperor.

PERIOD THE THIRTEENTH.

FROM THE REVOLUTION TO THE FALL OF THE JACOBITE PARTY IN ENGLAND.

1688 to 1760—72 YEARS.

REIGN CLXIX.

WILLIAM III. AND MARY II., KING AND QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1688 to 1702—14 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—William, prince of Orange, was the posthumous son of William II. of Orange, and of Mary, daughter of Charles I. of

England, and was born at the Hague 1650. He was 22 years old when elected stadtholder of the Dutch, 1672. He was of the middle stature, of a thin body, and delicate constitution, subject to an asthma and cough from his infancy. He was sparing of speech, and his manner was repulsive. In battle he displayed coolness, fortitude, and an animation very unusual for his general demeanour. His ambition promoted him to act as umpire in the contests of Europe, and to meddle in the quarrels of other states. To sum up his character in few words—'William was a fatalist in religion, indefatigable in war, enterprising in politics, dead to the warm and generous emotions of the heart, a cold relation, an ungracious prince, and an impetuous sovereign.' Mary, daughter of the king he had dethroned, and whom he had married in 1667, was in person tall and well-proportioned, with a pleasing expression of countenance, and a dignified air. Her judgment was solid, and her apprehension clear: but she possessed a cool equanimity, which agreed with her known want of natural affection. She made William an obedient wife, and even acted well as a regent during his occasional visits to the continent: but to her sister Anne she behaved with the coldness she had shown towards her father, insomuch that a degree of dislike existed between the two. At the age of thirty-three, she was seized with the small-pox, and died 1694, leaving her husband to rule alone, and without any issue.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—The abdication had taken place Dec. 23rd, 1688; and it was not till Feb. 13th, 1689, that the parliament assented to William's accession in right of his wife Mary, the sole administration, however, to remain in him. Thus became the sovereign of a powerful nation, William soon found, from the prevalence of party spirit, that the utmost vigilance would be required to enable him to sit steadily upon the throne. Although the tories had united with the whigs in allowing his interference in the national affairs, they were opposed to his advancement to the throne, to the prejudice of both James and his infant son. As high churchmen, too, they could not give up their notion of indefeasible hereditary right, nor acquiesce in the transfer of a throne by the mere will of the multitude. A bill of rights, therefore, settling all the disputed points between the king and people, and circumscribing while defining the royal prerogative, met with no opposition from the tories; and thus was drawn the first equitable and even actual contract between the prince and his subjects in England, the existence of which had long been theoretically contended for. At the same time, the temper, habits, and manners of William were not such as to create personal attachment, partaking as they did of a coldness which looked like pride, and repressed all enthusiasm in his favour, even amongst those who were attached to his cause. His anxiety for toleration, his strong calvinistic notions even to the point of fatalism, and his wish to remove the pale of the church, that dissenters might mingle and be confounded with churchmen, still further indisposed numbers; so that the crown had no sooner been placed on his head, than a large proportion of his subjects were either his secret or open enemies. His earliest act was that of Toleration, 1689, whereby dissenters were exempted from the penalties of the law, on condition of subscribing to a declaration against transubstantiation, the mass, &c., and approving certain of the 39 articles. In Scotland, the whigs alone favoured his exaltation; and in Ireland, the majority, being catholics, adhered to James.

While William was considering the difficulties of his situation, the exiled king, aided by Louis XIV., made a descent upon Ireland, 1689; and being received there with open arms, proceeded to invest the towns in the interest of his enemy and son. Failing in the siege of Londonderry, after a great loss of men, James returned to Dublin, and held a parliament; but nothing

was projected on this occasion, and William landing soon after, the decisive battle of the Boyne was fought July 1st, 1690. The action was of short duration ; as the Irish, after losing 1500 men, fled in all directions. James, on his return to Dublin, resigned his power, and re-embarked for France ; where, as all succeeding endeavours to restore him proved fruitless, he passed the remainder of his life in cloistered seclusion. Although Limerick held out against William, that king returned to England, and had the satisfaction, in the succeeding year, of seeing Ireland free from the Jacobites, as the faithful followers of James now began to be called.

In the meantime, Louis XIV. was pushing his conquests in the Netherlands ; and William hurried to a congress at the Hague, 1691, to animate the confederate princes against that monarch. The French, however, were so far beforehand with the allies, that they took the strong city of Mons, 1691, and Namur, 1692 ; and William's attempt to surprise Marshal Luxembourg at Steenkirk failed. The last attempt of the French in favour of the exiled James, 1692, was frustrated by admiral Russel ; who, in conjunction with the Dutch, wholly dispersed their invading fleet at La Hogue. In 1693, the French were victorious at Landen against William, simply as king of England. William in return retook Namur, 1695 ; but hostilities being put an end to by the treaty of Ryswick, 1696, the king obtained, in poor compensation for all his campaigns, a promise on the part of France to attempt to dethrone him no more, and the conviction that he had, by his loans to carry on war, laid the foundation of England's national debt.

The death of queen Mary without issue, 1695, had revived the hopes of the Jacobites ; and in 1696 a plot, which was unjustly enough imputed to them, was discovered, to assassinate William in a lane between Brentford and Turnham-green, as he returned in his coach from hunting. It was also found that there was to be an invasion from France at the same moment ; and that stores were already embarked at Calais, where the French troops were waiting to make a descent. Admiral Russel, with a formidable fleet, hereupon bombarded Calais, and thus prevented the interference of the French ; while William, at home, was busily engaged in summarily punishing such as had favoured the design. It was in 1698 that William joined his enemy Louis XIV. in a plot to divide the Spanish territories, should Charles II., then in a declining state, die without issue. Louis had calculated, from his long knowledge of the king of England's character, that he was too much a politician to be restricted by notions of private justice ; and that he would make no scruple to infringe the laws of particular countries when the balance of power was at stake. In so calculating he was not mistaken. In violation of every law, human and divine, therefore, Louis and William arranged a partition of the Spanish dominions ; but the hopes of the latter were at once annihilated, when the parliament, at its first meeting, objected to his large standing army. Some severe personal remarks also were made against the king as a Dutchman and foreigner ; it was even suggested that he should have a council of thorough Englishmen to guide him, so that he might better conform to the national usages, and lean to their prejudices ; and he was at length so greatly enraged at being obliged to give up his body-guard of Dutch soldiers, that he declared he would relinquish the crown. Of this, however, he thought better ; and when informed that the duke of Anjou had been made king of Spain by his grandfather Louis XIV., and that the French had overrun the Netherlands again, he gladly (in revenge at being so completely overreached by Louis), entered into an alliance against his ancient enemy, 1701. He was not, however, permitted to enjoy the pleasure of humbling France ; for his horse falling under him, in riding from Kensington to Hampton Court, he broke his collar-bone, which brought on a fever, of which

he died, March 8, 1702, in the fifty-second year of his age. He was interred in Henry VII.'s chapel, near the remains of his queen.

The accession of William is distinguished by the undisguised title of 'The Revolution;' and on that prince's assenting to the 'Bill of Rights,' 1689, it was henceforth illegal to suspend laws, &c., without consent of parliament, the protestant succession was secured, and the English constitution supposed to be restored to its original purity.

EVENTS.

DEATH OF QUEEN MARY, 1694.—

This event was the only one which appeared to affect William deeply: he had never shown much regard for his consort while living, but shut himself up for many weeks, and refused to see any of his court, when she died. Her obsequies were performed with great magnificence; the body being followed from Whitehall to the abbey by both houses of parliament. As a wife (which is rarely the case with one who has been an undutiful daughter) Mary deserved great praise. When asked what she intended her husband should be, if she became queen, she replied, 'All rule shall be vested in him. *Husbands love your wives*, is the command I wish him to remember; and I shall follow the injunction, *Wives, be obedient to your husbands in all things*.' All her efforts were to promote William's interests, and make him beloved by the people; and her letter to lady Russel, in which she deplores the bustle and pomp of royalty, because it separated her so greatly from her husband, is an interesting proof how much more powerful in her breast were the feelings of the woman than those of the queen.

EFFECT OF THE BISHOPS' TRIALS, 1688.—That this rash proceeding of James produced the catastrophe of his expulsion from the throne, there can be no manner of question. The seven protesting prelates had no hand whatever in the introduction of the prince of Orange; and the last thing they desired was the interference of any foreign power in the matter at issue between church and king. But their cause was made that of the great 'evangelical league,' of which the Dutch Stadtholder was the head; and every means was taken by the small

party in the state that plotted a change of dynasty, to make it generally believed, both that a deadly enmity existed between king James and his prelates, and that the latter generally looked to Holland for aid. Compton, bishop of London, was certainly a conspirator; but the following brief review of the protesting bishops' conference with the king, their trial, &c., will show that they acted an upright part throughout.

On the publication of the king's 'Declaration' for liberty of conscience, May 4th, 1688, directing the archbishops and bishops to see that it was read in all the churches of the kingdom, Dr. Sancroft, the metropolitan, called together some of the bishops, and drew up at his palace of Lambeth a petition, pointing out the illegality of the dispensing power contained in the Declaration; which the said bishops, without the archbishop (who was forbidden to appear at court), carried for presentation to the king at Whitehall, May 18th. It was evening, and an unusual time of audience; nevertheless the king received the prelates kindly in his closet, where the bishop of St. Asaph with the rest, all upon their knees, delivered the petition. James, on opening the document, said, 'This is my lord of Canterbury's own hand'—read it through, folded it up again, and exclaimed calmly, 'Here are strange words—I did not expect this from you. This is a standard of rebellion.' The bishop of Bristol replied, 'Rebellion! Sir, I beseech your majesty not to say so hard a thing of us. Your majesty cannot but remember that you sent me down to quell Monmouth's rebellion; and I am as ready to do what I can to quell

another, if there were occasion.' The bishops of Chichester, Ely, Bath and Wells, and of Peterborough, all spoke to the same effect. 'I will keep this paper,' rejoined James, 'but do you question my dispensing power? Some of you have printed and preached for it, when it was for your purpose.' The bishop of St. Asaph reminded him that such power was illegal, as being declared against by the parliament of Charles II., and by his own parliament.' James said 'he was resolved his Declaration should be published.' Bishop Ken then said, 'We are bound to fear God and honour the king: we *will* honour you—we *must* fear God.' 'Is this,' cried James passionately, 'that which I have deserved from you—I who have supported the church of England, and will support it? I did not expect this from you, especially from some of you. I will be obeyed in publishing my Declaration. God hath given me this dispensing power, and I will maintain it. If I think fit to alter my mind, I will send to you; but I tell you there are seven thousand men, and of the church of England too, who have not bowed the knee to Baal.' Thus ended the conference. On June 8th a warrant was issued by the king's special command, for committing William, archbishop of Canterbury, and the six other protesters, to the Tower, 'for contriving, making, and *publishing*, (this last the seven did not do, though their enemies took care to do it for them on the very morning after the conference,) a seditious libel against his majesty and his government.' 'The people,' writes Hume, 'were already aware of the danger to which the prelates were exposed, and were raised to the highest pitch of anxiety with regard to the issue of so extraordinary an affair. But when they beheld those fathers of the church embarked under a guard in vessels for the Tower, all their zeal for religion blazed up at once, and they flew to behold the affecting spectacle. The whole shore was covered with pros-

trate spectators, who at once implored the blessing of the prelates, and addressed their prayers to heaven for protection to them during this extreme danger. Even the soldiers flung themselves on their knees, and craved the benediction of the criminals they were appointed to guard. The bishops themselves, during this triumphant suffering, augmented the general favour by the most lowly and submissive deportment; they exhorted the people to fear God, honour the king, and maintain their loyalty; and no sooner had they entered the precincts of their prison, than they hurried to the Tower chapel, in order to return thanks for those afflictions which Heaven, in defence of its holy cause, had thought them worthy to endure.' On June 15th, archbishop Sancroft and the six bishops were brought from the Tower to the King's Bench by writ of habeas-corpus. As they passed by water, they were greeted with acclamations and prayers for their safety, by those assembled on either side of the river. In their way from the boat to Westminster-hall, the multitude formed a lane for them, and begged their blessing. Most of the immense crowds in Palace-yard were on their knees; the archbishop laid his hands on the heads of such as he could reach, as he proceeded; and while he exhorted them to continue steadfast in their faith, tears flowed from the eyes of many. A number of the principal nobility and gentry followed the prelates into court; and that crisis to which the king's intemperate measures were tending, seemed to be now arrived—the fate of the whole nation resting, as it were, upon the good or ill success of the bishops. The prelates having been examined before the judges, were admitted to bail, and allowed, to the great joy of the people, to return to their homes; which they did amidst the acclamations of the multitude. At night bonfires were lit in numerous streets, and the healths of the seven drank with enthusiastic joy. When archbishop

Sancroft landed at Lambeth, the grenadiers of lord Lichfield's regiment, though posted there by his enemies, made a lane for his passage from the river to the palace, received him with military honours, and fell on their knees to ask his blessing. On June 29th, the seven appeared in court to take their trial. The discussion lasted all day. In the evening the jury were desired to retire, and consider of their verdict. After remaining closeted, and in eager debate all the night, without either fire or candle, they at six on the ensuing morning sent a message to the chief justice, stating they were all agreed. In consequence, at 10, the prelates were brought into court; and the jury instantly, by their foreman, brought in their verdict, *Not Guilty*. 'The moment the verdict was pronounced (writes Clarendon) there was a wonderful shout, that one would have thought the hall had cracked.' The tumultuous sounds of triumphant joy extended rapidly from the heart of the metropolis into the country; and we have shown how the soldiery in camp at Hounslow, where the king was, caught, and echoed the acclamations. The prelates, immediately on their acquittal, went to Whitehall-chapel to return thanks; and being St. Peter's day, all remarked that the epistle was singularly appropriate, narrating, as it did, the miraculous deliverance of the then head of the church catholic from prison. 'Congratulations, as may be supposed (writes Dr. D'Oyley in his life of Sancroft) flowed in upon the archbishop, and the bishops who were associated with him, from various quarters. Among others, the prince of Orange, who least of all (as head, the doctor must mean, of the 'evangelical league,' not as an aspirant to the English throne) could be indifferent to the event of this trial, sent to congratulate with him and the other bishops, through Compton, bishop of London, with whom he at that time maintained a correspond-

ence.' On this correspondence hung king James's suspicion (the moment the prince's invasion was soon after talked of,) that 'the seven' were the inciters of that movement; and the archbishop was accordingly summoned to the royal presence on the matter, Nov. 2nd. On his arrival at Whitehall, he found already in attendance the bishops of London, Durham, Chester, and St. David's; to all of whom, when they were admitted into the closet, the king said, 'that he had seized a person who had brought into the city a great number of the prince of Orange's 'declarations,' in which (says he) is a passage that concerns you.' The secretary having, according to the king's order, read over the passage, Dr. Sancroft spoke to the following purpose: 'That he owed to his majesty a natural allegiance: that he had oftentimes confirmed that allegiance by taking voluntarily the oaths of allegiance and supremacy; that as to this particular charge, and his personal concern in it, he averred it to be utterly false; that so far had he been from inviting in any manner the said prince to make this attempt, he had never made any application to him; and further, that he could not believe that any of his brethren, the bishops, had given the prince such an invitation.' The bishop of London said, 'he had given the king his answer on the day before;' the bishop of Durham said, 'I am sure I am none of them;' 'Nor I,' 'Nor I,' said the other two. The king declared he believed them all innocent of the charge, and only requested that they would draw up a paper which might be published, in order to undeceive the people. On November 6th the same prelates, and others, again visited Whitehall, but without any such document as the king had demanded; the archbishop declaring that he and his brethren had so severely smarted for meddling with matters of state and government, that it had obliged them to be cautious how they did so any more.

'Nay,' continued Dr. Sancroft, 'your majesty's attorney and solicitor both told us, at our trial, that the honestest paper relating to matters of civil government might be a seditious libel, when presented by persons who had nothing to do with such matters—as they said we had not, but in time of parliament.' After some altercation, the passion being of course all on the royal side, the conference terminated; and the crowds without the palace, on finding the prelates come away unscathed, exhibited their joy in the usual manner. That the archbishop himself, and the other six, at least, were perfectly sincere, and were ignorant of there being any understanding with the stadtholder, is generally admitted; but that Compton, bishop of London, spoke falsely, and was one of the few prelates of two consciences, is evident from the discovery subsequently made of a letter to the prince, signed by him and others, June 30, 1688, pressing him to come without delay to their assistance, and promising to prepare all others to meet his person. Such inexcusable duplicity was not chargeable against either of the seven, more especially Sancroft and Ken, who evinced to the world their freedom from and horror of the crime of the anonymous Amalekite, who boasted to David of having slain Saul, by refusing to take the oath of allegiance to the supplanters of king James, his own daughter and son; for which they were by king William and queen Mary deprived of their sees, and left to their own resources, during the remainder of their lives, for bread.

PRESBYTERY ESTABLISHED IN SCOTLAND.—On the refusal of the bishops to take the oath of allegiance to him, 1689, William declared episcopacy for ever abolished in Scotland, and presbytery the national form of worship: the state engaging to support the latter as a church, in the same way that it afforded protection to the episcopal church in England. By a subsequent act (10 Queen Anne), the law of presentation to benefices

was laid down for the Scottish presbyterian church, or *kirk*, as it is usually called; and that regulation has been observed up to the present day. The following is an outline of the constitution of the kirk.

Its lowest ecclesiastical legislative body is the *kirk session*, consisting of the parish minister, and of elders chosen from the parishioners; the latter almost invariably respectable shopkeepers, and sometimes even weavers and joiners, the office of elder being rather shunned than courted by well-educated Scotsmen. The kirk-session superintends the morals of the parish; and all cases of habitual drunkenness, &c., come primarily before it; on which occasions it has power to examine witnesses on oath, and then to inflict ecclesiastical censures.

Next in superiority is the *presbytery*, composed of the ministers of a certain number of parishes adjacent to one another, who sit in it *ex officio*, and of an elder from each kirk-session of the district for which the presbytery is constituted. These representative elders are chosen once in six months. This body, or court, may affirm, reverse, or alter the sentences of the kirk-session within its bounds, and is tantamount in power to the episcopal office in the church of England. The induction of presentees to benefices is committed exclusively to the presbytery; and by the act of Queen Anne (still in force), 'the presbytery is obliged to receive and admit such qualified person or persons as minister or ministers, as shall be presented by the respective patrons.' As an additional security against the introduction of an unqualified person into a benefice, the patron can present to it only some individual who has been previously *licensed* by some other presbytery of Scotland to preach, though not to administer the sacraments; licensing being nearly equivalent to *ordination* in the English meaning, though the term 'ordination' in the Scottish kirk is made to mean *the united institution and in-*

duction of a person to a benefice. If a presbytery refuse, without assigning a reason, to induct a person legally presented to a living, the civil courts may order that presbytery to do so under a penalty; just as a writ of *quare impedit* may be issued against an English bishop who refuses to institute to a benefice any legal presentee, against whose literary, theological, or moral character no charge can be even brought, much less established. A presbytery has a civil jurisdiction regarding the building and repair of manse and churches; and here it must be observed, that to each *minister* (as the incumbent is invariably called) of a country parish, a manse (parsonage house) and a glebe of at least four acres of arable land, and as much grass land as is enough to support two cows and a horse, is allowed. The manse and glebe are found at the expense of the heritors (i. e. the proprietors of land within the parish). The Scotch livings vary from 150*l.* to 500*l.* per annum; and an act of parliament, 1810, guaranteed that none shall be under the former sum.

The next body above the presbytery is the *synod*, consisting of the ministers and elders of which a certain number of contiguous presbyteries are composed. The synod is a court of review over the presbytery, just as the latter is over the kirk-session, and is similar to a synod of the bishops and clergy of an archiepiscopal province in England.

The supreme court of the kirk is the *general assembly*; a body which, from the days of Andrew Melville downwards, wherever it has met, whether legally or otherwise, has been noted for the turbulence of its proceedings, and for its contempt of all civil authority which did not unhesitatingly sanction its own notions of religious truth. It is composed of delegates from every presbytery, university, and royal burgh throughout Scotland, and consists of a fixed number of ministers, and (usually three) elders from each university,

and an elder from each royal burgh. No general assembly can meet but by the authority of the crown, whose representative takes his seat in it, though without sharing in its deliberations, under the name of lord high commissioner. It meets annually in May, and only continues its sittings ten days; and after its dissolution by the said commissioner, all its proceedings—should it ever dream, in defiance of royal authority, to venture upon any—are in the eye of the law null and void. In this respect, whatever may have been the frequent boast of the kirk to the contrary, the general assembly of Scotland is as completely under state control as is the Convocation of the English church. (*See Convocation.*) This, however, does not prevent such general assembly from acting as a court of last resort over the three inferior bodies named; and it has a right to determine finally every question brought from them by reference, complaint, or appeal. In its legislative capacity, it can, by the *Barrier Act* (as it is styled) of 1697, enact new laws, under certain restrictions, for the internal regulation of the kirk's affairs.

The elders of the kirk are to be grave and serious persons, chosen from families of known orthodoxy; and they are constantly employed in suppressing vice and cherishing piety, being appointed to their office by their clerical brethren, who, in the presence of the congregation, give them what they term *ordination*, setting them apart to their office by solemn prayer.

BATTLE OF THE BOYNE, 1690.—During the troubles in England, which had terminated in placing William on the throne, the two parties in Ireland were kept in tranquillity by their mutual fears. The protestants were terrified at the prospect of a massacre, should their opponents rise *en masse*; and the catholics expected daily to be invaded by the Dutch and English. Their terrors, however, were ill-founded; for though lord-de-

puty Tyrconnel had sent several messages over to William, that he was ready to yield the island to any force that might make a surrender decent, his offers had always been rejected. Ireland being thus neglected, because it was William's policy to reward those who supported his cause in England out of the forfeitures which he purposed extracting ultimately from the Irish for not having welcomed him with open arms, the protestants at length declared openly for William, and the catholics for James; whereupon general Hamilton, who had been sent over by William, but was really in James's interest, routed the former with considerable slaughter at Drumore, and took Hillsborough, their head-quarters—but Londonderry resolved to hold out to the last.

On the 7th of March, 1689, James arrived at Kinsale with twenty ships, and 1200 English, officered by Frenchmen; all provided by Louis XIV. He was received with great cordiality by the Irish; and having created Tyrconnel a duke, proceeded on his march to Dublin. But the condition of the rabble that gathered round the king under the name of *an army*, was not calculated to raise his hopes of success. Most of them were only provided with clubs, or, at least, sticks tipped with iron. Their very numbers ruined the country; inso-much that, out of 100,000 already on foot, James resolved to select only as many as he could well equip: the rest he ordered to their respective homes.

It was on the 24th of March that James made his triumphal entry into the only capital which still acknowledged his authority. Ireland had not seen a king of England on her shores since the days of John; and every effort had been therefore made by the Jacobite party, then certainly the leading one, to give an imposing air to the ceremonial. The entire way from the city-gates to the castle was lined with soldiers, the streets were sanded for the occasion, and the balconies were hung with tapestry and

cloth of arras, and filled, says an historian of the time, 'with all the loveliness and grace of Erin.' Forty young and beautiful maidens from the convents, clad in white silk, strewed flowers before their sovereign, who, mounted on a gallant charger, having the earl of Granard and lord Powis on his right, and the duke of Berwick and lord Melfort on his left, advanced amid the plaudits of the multitude. His first proclamation was addressed to the protestants who had quitted Ireland, urging them to return; and he then proceeded to lay siege to Londonderry, arriving before that city in April. The place had been invested ever since the previous December; but though ill fortified and provided, the bravery of the inhabitants still kept their invaders at bay. James had just reduced the garrison to the last extremity, when, on the 28th of July, seven ships, laden with provisions, came to its relief, and he was compelled to raise the siege. Great difficulties, on this, beset the path of James. His soldiers had been for some time supported by their officers; and the funds of the latter failing, he was obliged to coin copper money, which was to pass for silver in value. To add to his distress, duke Schomberg, William's general, landed with 10,000 men, and took the town of Carrickfergus; and though the duke's course was impeded by the breaking out of a fever among his troops, James's soldiers caught the infection, and were compelled to retire to winter-quarters. The bad success of this campaign induced William to cross to Ireland, June, 1690; and finding that his enemy had retired beyond the Boyne, he encamped his army (36,000 English, French Huguenots, Dutch, and Danes), June 29, near Drogheda, supported by duke Schomberg, and general Ginkel. James was on the opposite (south) bank of the river, with 27,000 Irish and French, having for his chief officers the dukes of Tyrconnel and Berwick, count Lauzun, and general Hamilton. On the

evening of the 30th, William was shot in the shoulder by a field-piece aimed at him while reconnoitring; but the wound was not serious, and he took a command in the action of the following day, July 1.

The battle commenced with the attempt of duke Schomberg to ford the river below Slane; when sir Neal O'Neile opposed him with his dragoons, but fell at their head, on the first charge. William, upon this, ordered a general dash through the water at Oldbridge, himself and duke Schomberg bringing up the rear; and a tremendous conflict began, wherein the Huguenots were routed. Schomberg was killed, in trying to rally the Frenchmen; but the animated conduct of William prevented the flight of several regiments, whom he led on in person against the Irish, and drove them fairly out of Oldbridge towards the hill of Donore. On that hill James was posted with some squadrons of horse, and at intervals was heard to exclaim, when he saw his own troops repulsing those of the enemy, 'O spare my English subjects!' While his troops were yet fighting, he quitted his station on seeing a regiment of them thrown into disorder and fly, and rode off towards Dublin. Just as he had departed, the Irish rallied, and repulsed general Ginkel's charge; but general Hamilton was soon after made prisoner, and the whole Irish army thereupon retreated, followed by their opponents, across the river near Duleek, till night stopped the pursuit. No great sacrifice of life had occurred on either side; but the Irish lost their baggage and artillery entirely, and the battle of the Boyne was at an end. James passed hastily through Dublin to Waterford, riding on horseback the extraordinary distance of 200 miles in 24 hours; and at the latter city he found a ship ready to convey him back to France. As he was crossing the quay to go on board, a gust of wind carried off his hat; upon which General O'Farrell, an old officer, presenting him with

his own, James took it, observing as he put it on his head, 'If I have lost a crown by the Irish—for he would have it that they had not fought bravely,) I have at least gained a hat by them.' In the same feeling, he had said to the duchess of Tyrconnel, upon reaching Dublin from the field of battle, 'Your countrymen, madam, can run well!' 'Not quite so well as your majesty,' retorted the spirited duchess, 'for I see you have won the race.'

The victory, however, was by no means decisive; and Sarsfield, an experienced general, headed the beaten army, to defend the banks of the Shannon. James, however, sent orders that one St. Ruth should be placed over Sarsfield. On the other hand, Ginkel took command of William's army, after that king's return to England; and in an attack upon Athlone, defended by colonel Grace for James, he not only gained possession of that place, but, in a pitched battle at Aughrim, put the Irish to the rout, killed 5000 of them, together with their general St. Ruth, and drove the remainder upon Limerick. In this last retreat the followers of James made a brave defence; but, after a siege of six weeks, they came to terms with Ginkel, who was rewarded by William with the earldom of Athlone. But when the estates given him with the title were taken away, 1695, to pay the public debts, the general retired to his native Holland; which has to the present day been the usual place of residence of the Earls of Athlone.

THE LAST WEHMIC COURT.—The power of these secret German tribunals had been crippled so early as 1488, by Albert the Grave; but in certain remote and little frequented districts, where the feudal influence of territorial lords was unimpaired, a necessity had, to the time of Leopold I., existed for the maintenance of Wehmie (Wehmie) or Free Courts. The castles of many of the German barons, as in earlier days, were the strongholds of oppressors, who ra-

vaged at their pleasure the surrounding country. In more remote days these castles were filled with the spoils of the traveller and the merchant; the daughters of their neighbours and vassals were dishonoured in the owners' libertine embraces; and they resembled rather the giants and monsters of romance, than the gallant deliverers of helpless captives, and the protectors of disconsolate damsels. Even in the hour of victory, their avarice triumphed over their humanity; and they loaded their prisoners in fetters, and immured them in dungeons, the more certainly to extort an exorbitant ransom. A baron of Cologne once erected a castle; and his seneschal inquired with great anxiety how it was to be supported? His lord pointed out four roads which converged near the fortress, and said, 'There are your means for obtaining a sufficient revenue.' It was to check these excesses that the Vehmlic courts were instituted. Like the Lynch-law of America, they were a substitute for the imperfect administration of justice; and were invested with the melo-dramatic terrors, so captivating to the imagination in a barbarous state of society. The judicial proceedings of each Vehmlic court were involved in the profoundest darkness, and only known to the initiated; who were bound to secrecy by the most dreadful imprecations. Its sittings were sometimes held in the open fields, but more frequently in the gloom of some dismal vault; which being under a house, the accused were let down by a trap-door in the flooring, and thus brought unexpectedly before their judges. The crimes principally brought before it were heresy, magic, rape, theft, robbery, and murder. A single accuser's oath was sufficient to draw the accused within its power; and a notice suspended to his dwelling first intimated his danger to the devoted wretch. If he appeared to this summons, he was still kept in ignorance of his accuser, and was bound to

clear himself of the accusation; and neglect to appear, or failure of acquittal, equally exposed him to the vengeance of the Vehmlic fraternity. After condemnation, the initiated were at liberty to put him to death, wherever he might be found: he was to be suspended, not to the gallows, but to a tree; and resistance authorized his pursuer to shed his blood, leaving the dagger in the wound, in token that the deed had been perpetrated by the authority of the 'free court.' The last Vehmlic court sat in 1690, to keep in check some Styrian barons, who made forays on the territories surrounding their almost inaccessible fastnesses; but from that period, through the wise conduct of the emperors, all the feudal German chiefs have respected the laws, in common with their fellow-countrymen, and the Lynch-law of the 'Wehmlic' tribunals is no more.

ABINGDON HOSPITAL FOUNDED 1689, pursuant to the will of Sir John Mason, on the failure of heirs to his estates.—JOHN MASON, born at Abingdon, was educated liberally by his uncle, a monk of the abbey there, and then entered at All Soul's, Oxford. Obtaining the notice of Henry VIII., that king employed him in several embassies; and after maintaining his influence both with Edward VI. and Mary, he was knighted, and made treasurer of her chamber by Elizabeth, and died chancellor of Oxford, 1566. Sir John was a highly philosophical person; and his chief maxim, by which he passed unscathed through so many tempests, was 'do, and say nothing.' When on his death-bed, he called his family together, and spoke to them in the following words: 'Lo! I have lived to see five princes and have been privy-counsellor to four of them: I have seen the most remarkable things in foreign parts, and have been present at most state transactions for thirty years together: and after so many years' experience I have learned, that seriousness is

the greatest wisdom, temperance the best physician, and a good conscience the best estate; and were I to live again, I would change the court for a cloister, my privy-counsellor's consequence and bustle for a hermit's retirement, and the whole life I have lived in a palace for an hour's enjoyment of God in my closet! Abingdon Hospital still shelters under its roof the infirm, the aged, and the indigent.

THE BANK OF ENGLAND ESTABLISHED, 1694, (now the largest establishment of the kind in Europe), by Mr. William Pattison, a Scotsman. The scheme having received the sanction of government, to whom the capital (1,200,000*l.*) was to be lent at 8 per cent interest, the subscription was filled in ten days from its opening. The profits of the Bank of England are derived from discounts on commercial bills, interest on exchequer bills, (of which a large amount is usually held,) the interest upon the capital stock in the hands of government, the allowance for managing the public debt, interest on loans, on mortgages, dividends on stock in the public funds, profit on purchases of bullion, and some minor sources of income. In 1694, the stockholders divided 8 per cent; and after varying between 10 and 4½ per cent, they have, in like manner, from 1823, to the present time, shared 8 per cent. In addition, the stockholders have at various times received bonuses to the amount of 6,694,380*l.* or 57½ per cent upon the subscribed capital. The expenses of the bank are necessarily great, having to maintain 800 officers, clerks, porters, and messengers; and paying annually to the stamp-office 70,000*l.* as a composition for the duties upon its notes and bills.

COFFEE IMPORTED into England through Holland from Turkey 1695, when it began to be used as a beverage by the higher classes. The coffee is an evergreen shrub, with berries which change from a bright red to purple, and which contain the coffee-bean. The West India is-

lands and the Isle of Bourbon now supply England with coffee; but that coming from Moka in Arabia is considered superior to all other.

THE LAND TAX ESTABLISHED.—This tax on the landed property of England was introduced when a new valuation of estates was made throughout the kingdom, 1689; which, though by no means a fair one, had the effect of raising a supply of 500,000*l.*, by a rate of one shilling in the pound on the value of estates given in. The present method of levying is by charging a particular sum on each county, according to the valuation of 1689; and this sum is raised on individuals, by commissioners appointed in the act. The rate is four shillings in the pound; and the tax may be redeemed by the owner of the land on which it is laid; or, in default of his redeeming it, it may be purchased by any other person, the money paid in either case being applied to the reduction of the national debt.

BAYONETS INVENTED by the French, 1693. As this instrument turned the musket into a pike also, it greatly changed the system of war; battles have been fought with the bayonet on the musket, without a shot; and the Prussians have been thought superior to all others in its use.

MORDEN COLLEGE, BLACKHEATH, —was founded 1695, for decayed Levant merchants. Sir John Morden, a Turkey merchant, after many reverses of fortune, raised this substantial building, and placed therein twelve fit objects of his bounty. The pensioners now amount to forty, with an allowance of 40*l.* per annum, excellent apartments, coals, candles, washing, and the attendance of servants. The treasurer resides in convenient apartments in the edifice, as well as the chaplain: each has a salary, and must be akin to the founder. The pensioners dine together in the common-hall (as at the universities), at the expense of the college.

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING CHRISTIAN KNOWLEDGE, FOUNDED 1699.—

Profaneness and immorality having singularly increased in England during the reign of William III. through the constant shiftings of religious faith which had long marked the nation, a royal proclamation was issued 1691, calling on all magistrates to execute with energy the laws against vice; and in 1699 some gentlemen, members of the church of England, formed themselves into a society with the above name. By the end of two years, the Society had formed catechetical schools in the chief towns of the kingdom and her colonies, distributing the bible and common prayer book, gratuitously, or at a cheap rate, among the poor; and it being then resolved to form a separate association for foreign parts, exclusive of the colonies, the Society divided into two branches, 1701, and a charter was granted for the 'Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts.' The original institution continued to promote its pious designs at home and in the colonies, and in 1710 even undertook the management of the funds of the protestant mission which Frederick IV. of Denmark had established in Hindustan. Up to this period the Society had sent out no missionaries of its own; and its independent exertions in this way commenced 1712, by assisting 200 protestants of Saltzburgh to emigrate from Germany, where they were suffering for their opinions, to Georgia in America. Subsequently the Danish mission drew its attention especially to India; and from about 1740 to the present day it has been making those exertions which have permanently, it is hoped, established a branch of the church of England in Hindustan. Among the most celebrated missionaries of the society, (chiefly Danes,) have been Swartz, Jacobi, and Rottler; and the first prelate sent out to India by the English government (at the suggestion of the Society) was Dr. Middleton, 1814, as bishop of Calcutta. After founding 'Bishop's College' at Calcutta, for

the education of native youth in sacred knowledge and the oriental tongues, in order to their becoming missionaries to their heathen brethren, he died aged 53, 1822. Dr. Heber was his successor; and he, after labouring like a primitive apostle, was cut off, 1826. Dr. James followed, and died after scarcely a year's residence, 1828. Dr. Turner was the successor of Dr. James, and died 1831; whereon the present bishop, Dr. Daniel Wilson, was appointed. On account of the immense field for spiritual labour presented by the colony of Hindustan, it was agreed by the English government, after yearly solicitations from the Society, to constitute each presidency a see: accordingly Dr. Daniel Corrie was sent out as the first bishop of Madras, 1835, and, dying 1837, was succeeded by Dr. Spencer, the present holder of the see; and in 1836 Dr. Carr was sent as first bishop to Bombay.—Dr. Wilson, at Calcutta, being, at the same time, constituted metropolitan of India.

While India in the East was thus cared for, the Society omitted not to solicit bishops for India in the West. In 1824 Jamaica and Barbadoes each received a prelate; and, by the exertions of the same body, and its own munificent outlay, there is now an episcopal see in many other of the distant dependencies of Great Britain. From what has been stated, it will be gathered that the Society has supplied the place of a convocation of the English clergy for more than a century; and it may be justly regarded as still the great secular office and council of the English church.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY OF THE CHURCH. (1600 to 1700).—In looking thoroughly into the history of the Reformation, we discern that there was no previously concerted plan for a new *profession of faith* on the part of the opponents of papal supremacy: there was nothing beforehand, beyond a firm league to throw off at a moment all allegiance to the Church, leaving

points of belief for an after consideration. There can therefore be nothing in the assertion of those writers, who affirm that the origin of the Reformation was a general desire in men's minds to abandon *the errors* of the Church. What are now regarded as the chief and most important of those errors were not even believed to be such by the great opponents of the hierarchy, Luther, Zuinglius, Henry VIII., Cramner, Calvin. Luther himself ever upheld transubstantiation; Zuinglius made baptism to be of next to none effect, since heathens and infants were safe without it, and drew on the reformers the nickname of 'Sacramentarians', by making the Eucharist a graceless commemoration. Henry VIII. gave up no ancient tenet but the pope's supremacy. Cramner performed mass throughout the whole reign of Henry, and believed in the corporal presence till a little before his death. Calvin, though stigmatised by the old church as a 'Sacramentarian', maintained the real presence in a way little removed from the corporal.

But though the Reformation was virtually a mere revolt from papal domination, it was soon taken advantage of to question the doctrines of the Church. In England, a convocation under the supremacy of Henry VIII., 1543, made a show of attack upon acknowledged errors, but without eradicating any beyond purgatory and indulgences. By 'The Necessary Doctrine' of that convocation, images were still allowed in the churches, with direction that all worship *before* them was to be directed, not to the saint represented, but to God only; the invocation of saints was still permitted under certain limitations; and the doctrine of the real presence, in the most decided sense, was authorized. So matters remained through the reign of Henry and his son Edward; and even Elizabeth proceeded from 1558 (her accession) until 1562 without any new formulary for the church of

England, in which latter year the 39 articles were promulgated. From that period, something like a general conformity began; and though many practices obtained until the reign of Charles II., which would in our day subject the observers to the stigma of being considered Romanists, there was seen the outset of a gradual progress towards the belief and usages of our own day.

The rearing of a fabric, however, so like that of the hydra from whose bonds they had just broken, was by no means viewed with calmness by the anti-prelatical party in the kingdom; and the course of civil events soon gave that faction an influence, which went on continually augmenting until both the throne, and the church, which had clung to it for support, were overturned. Under the title of *puritans*, the enemies of hierarchy in all its forms trod for twenty years (from 1640 to 1660) upon the crown and the altar. The indiscretion of Archbishop Laud, who, with the purest intentions, attempted to make the church of England at once capable of standing alone, by restoring to her those privileges of which Henry VIII. had (in defiance of the clergy's original declaration in convocation concerning his supremacy—'quantum per Christi legem licet') deprived her,—that prelate's indiscretion, we repeat, had probably hastened, but by no means originated, the crisis which had evened. Some convulsion must, sooner or later, have taken place; and the only imaginable difference is, that had the puritans delayed their work, they would have been annihilated in the conflict when it *did* ensue, and dissent in England, consequently, would have been crushed for ever.

And here a few words concerning dissent may not be inappropriate. It has been an argument with non-conformists, against the church of England, that she first set an example of schism by her separation from the church of Rome. Now,

though some have been inclined to reply, that there was no dissent whatever in that case of separation, we think it preferable that our church *should* admit her dissent, in order to justify it; and that she may show her good grounds for that *breach of unity*, which, but for the best of pleas, would have been an act of extreme wickedness. We will therefore allow our church to have dissented from that of Rome, and will also allow the latter to have been the primitive apostolical Church Catholic of Christ up to the time of the full completion of the protestant Reformation—but with *corruptions*; such corruptions consisting mainly of additions of points of faith and discipline, over and above those enjoined upon Christians in the gospel and traditions of the fathers. The Church Catholic, we would say, is the *nucleus*, around which had gathered, in the lapse of centuries, the corruptions in question; and these extraneous concretions, not the Reformation, but the church of England, at length separated from the enclosed nucleus. The church of England is the nucleus *without*, and the church of Rome the nucleus *with*, the corruptions. The church of England, therefore, in separating from Rome, simply threw off the rust and corruption which had encrusted the Church Catholic. After so doing, she regarded Rome as her erring mother—as a mother notwithstanding her errors—since not even a mother's faults can destroy the natural tie of parent and child; and she preserved a conduct towards her mother, since a conduct is to be preserved by children even towards erring mothers. She regards her yet as a portion of the Church Catholic; but, in considering the conduct of dissenters from catholic communion, she sees no analogy between their case and her own.

In separating from the hierarchy of Rome, the church of England professed to uphold every point of faith

warranted by the Scripture, together with the opinions and forms of discipline enjoined by authentic Tradition, or (in other words) as shown, by the writings of the Fathers, to have been maintained from the beginning by Christians. Such tradition constitutes *the Voice of the Church*, as distinguished from the *Authority of Scripture*; and every Christian is bound to obey that voice, as the authentic interpreter of Scripture. But when the English church saw some who had, in like manner with herself, protested, disclaim what the gospel and authentic tradition enjoined, she declared such separatists schismatical, and voluntary departers from the pale of catholic communion. Justly she exclaimed, that the mere minority which the various classes of nonconformists have ever proved to the great majority, or church members, ought, for unity's sake, or for the sake of universal charity, to defer to that majority. Such compliance would at least have been the means of avoiding all participation in that dishonour to the gospel which now obtains, through the shameful divisions of its professors. As the larger number of dissenters are such through scantiness of knowledge, and are led by others, their ignorance may be pleaded in their excuse; but it does seem strange that the smaller and more reflecting portion, persons capable of taking comprehensive views, and of seeing the beauty, and estimating the value of christian unity, should, out of tenderness to the feelings of what is after all but the total minority, and that split into countless and antagonist sects, forget what is due to the manifestly larger one-minded party, or church majority. Is the presbyterian's objection to episcopacy, that of the baptist to infant baptism, that of the independent to catholicity, of the quaker to uncalled prayer, or of the methodist to the wholesome discipline of church restraint, sufficient ground for rending the robe of Christ? No, no. The pride of man vaunts itself herein.

against God; and to show that such is the truth, it almost invariably happens, that after an estrangement to the third and fourth generation, there is sorrow, and repentance, and a voluntary return to the cleansed church as in England established, and not unfrequently to the church of Rome herself, notwithstanding her supererogatory tenets. 'There is something fixed and solid in the Church,' said a dissenter when about to enter her pale: 'in the conventicle, opinions are ever changing.'

Charles II. had no sooner been restored, than he reinstated the nine surviving deposed bishops, first to their sees, and subsequently to their seats in parliament; presbytery in Scotland was abolished, the king (in remembrance of the indignities he had suffered from its professors) declaring to Lauderdale, 'that it was not a religion fit for a gentleman;' the Covenant, which had now the mass of the lower orders in Scotland against it, was burned by the common hangman; and a bill of uniformity in matters of religion was passed unanimously by the parliament, as a pledge of its sincere attachment to the hierarchy. On the day of subscription to the last-named bill, 200 of the presbyterian clergy relinquished their livings; and though bishoprics were offered to Calamy, Baxter, and Reynolds, the chief non-conformist leaders, the last only accepted the boon. On the other hand, Charles attempted to obtain a grant of independence for the catholics; attached as he was personally to many of them, on account of their fidelity both to himself and his father in their distress. The commons, however, wherein dissenters predominated, opposed all concession in that quarter, and in every way augmented the public prejudice against the duke of York, who had declared himself a catholic; and plots were constantly talked of, with a view to show the Jesuits to be in conspiracy for the destruction of the king. The bold determination of the duke, when he had become

James II., to restore the old form of religion, and the consequent call made by bishop Compton and his partisans to the heads of the Protestant League, to aid in supporting the reformed faith in England; the successful invasion of the prince of Orange; the preservation of the church of England, in spite of king William's hatred of episcopacy, and desire for presbytery; and his restoration of the latter form of church rule in Scotland—closed the history of the seventeenth century of the Church Catholic, as connected with our own country. In that space of time had flourished the divines who may be said to have brought the English branch to its highest estate by their preaching, their writings, and their example. Among them were bishops Andrewes, Ken, Bramhall, Hall, Sanderson, Whitgift, Wilson, Ussher, the holy Hammond, the great Hooker, the hospitable Morton, the deep-learned Dean Jackson, the pious and primitive George Herbert, and the truly catholic Bishop Bull. On that school the church of England became settled and established in catholicity; and for a time she remained the model of purity to the other protestant branches. 'Think (says a recent writer in the "Quarterly Review"), of Laud's patience under martyrdom, a martyrdom not of one stroke but of many years, passed under 'barbarous libellings, and other bitter and grievous scorns'; of Hammond's fastings and prayers,—fastings for six-and-thirty hours, and prayers more than seven times a day; of Hooker, the profound and philosophical Hooker's childlike meekness; of Whitgift's 'solace and repose' amid the grandeur which he maintained for his office, in often dining at his hospital at Croydon among his poor brethren; of Sanderson's abstinence and temperance, so that, during the whole of his life, he spent not five shillings upon himself in wine; of Bramhall's noble exertions for the church of Ireland; of Morton's daily alms, his single meal, his straw-bed at eighty years of

age, his maintenance of scholars, and hospitality to all, his intense studies (like those of so many others of the same writers), begun daily, to the end of his life, at four in the morning; of Jackson's charity and generosity; of Patrick's devotional spirit; of Cosin's 'princely magnificence' to his 'first-born, the church;' of Usher's dove-like simplicity, his slowness to take offence, and readiness to forgive and forget; of Beveridge's pastoral zeal; of Nicholson's episcopal gravity, 'legenda scribens, et faciens scribenda;' of Taylor's total forgetfulness of self; of bishop Wilson, whose mere fame for piety procured from the king of France, in time of war, an order that no French privateer should pillage the Isle of Man; of Ken's Sunday feasts with his twelve poor parishioners; of Andrewes' 'life of prayer,' and his book of private devotions, 'found worn in pieces by his fingers, and wet with his tears.' And remember that these lights of holiness and goodness were not kept burning, as in a monastic system, under an artificial shelter, and fed with extraordinary excitements, but exposed to the blasts of persecution, and to the chilling atmosphere of 'the world;' that they are not as accidents and strange phenomena in the system of the English church, which make us wonder how they could be found in such a place under such principles of government; but true and faithful portraiture of her character and doctrines;—and then ask, whether personal holiness be wanting to that church as a test of her truth—whether we need any other outward system to make us as holy as they were, than the system in which they were bred?

In the church of Rome commenced, in this century, the first great schism, by the spread of the tenets of bishop Jansen. The Jesuits, as the great opponents of his predestinarian no-

tions, became thus the leaders of the high-church party in Spain, France, Germany, and Italy; while even in protestant Holland, the Arminians and Calvinists, under the polemical designations of remonstrants and anti-remonstrants, imitated the conflict of the partisans of the hierarchy, and were often the cause of violent civil commotions.

At the close of this century, the political state of England, consequent on religious differences, brought about a change in church doctrines and discipline, which led in the next century to lamentable schisms. With William III., the head of the 'Evangelical League,' which had long assumed all authority over continental protestants, came in the system of the Geneva school; and Calvinism would speedily have been the established form in England, had not the Anglo-Catholic church reached, through the means before stated, an extraordinary degree of solidity. But for that, episcopacy itself would have been abrogated; for, such was king William's contempt for 'the apostolical succession,' that he revenged the Scottish prelates' refusal to take the oaths, by extinguishing their church, and erecting presbytery on its ruins. The preference given by some of the English bishops to deprivation, rather than acknowledge his regal right, caused the monarch, though he owed the success of his invasion to the supposed acquiescence of the whole body of the prelates therewith, to listen to every argument in favour of episcopal degradation; and had his reign been longer, or had his successor been other than a strenuous supporter of high-church principles, England, like the protestant portion of Germany, would at this day have had to mourn *a century's total abstention from catholicity.*

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER AHMED II., &c.—Through the influence of the vizir Kuprighi, this prince succeeded his father, Suleiman III., 1691; in a few months after which event, Kuprighi fell in battle against the Austrians, 1691. Ahmed's reign was marked by a plague, a famine, and an earthquake; and the capital was nearly destroyed by fire. The Bedwan Arabs, in defiance of the imperial safeguard, dared to attack the caravan of the Mecca pilgrims; and at sea, the Venetians took Chios, and threatened Smyrna. Ahmed, who was an inactive ruler, died 1695, and was succeeded by MUSTAFA II., his nephew. He defeated the Imperialists before Temeswaer, 1696, and carried on a prosperous war against the Venetians, Poles, and Muscovites; but prince Eugene obliged him to conclude a peace with those several powers, and to cede Transylvania to Austria, Asof to Russia, and the Morea to Venice. Mustafa hereon retired to Adrianople, where his subsequently voluptuous career occasioned his deposition by the Janisaries, 1703; and he died in imprisonment six months after.

THE POPEDOM.—ALEXANDER VIII. was the next pope to Innocent XI., 1689. He was the son of the great chancellor of Venice, Ottoboni, which oligarchy he assisted in its wars with money and men, as he did the emperor Leopold against the Turks. He died 1691. **INNOCENT XII.,** Antonio Pignatelli, a Neapolitan, succeeded. He had a serious dispute with the emperor Leopold, who attempted to revive in Italy the rights of the empire over the former imperial fiefs, which had, during the wars and vicissitudes of ages, become emancipated. Leopold published an edict, which was fixed up at Rome, 1697, enjoining all the possessors of such territories to apply to the emperor for his investiture within a fixed time, or they would be considered as usurpers and rebels. The

measure, if enforced, would have affected the greater part of the landed property of Italy, and the sovereignty of its governments; and Innocent, being supported by the court of France, at length succeeded in persuading Leopold to desist. Innocent, among other noble works, built the harbour of Porto d'Anzo, on the ruins of the ancient Antium, the aqueduct of Civita Vecchia, and the palace of the Monte Citorio, at Rome, for the courts of justice; and died, highly respected for his integrity and piety, aged eighty-six, 1700. **CLEMENT XI.,** Gian Albani, was his successor. Louis XIV., on placing his grandson Philip on the Spanish throne, demanded for him of Clement the investiture of Naples and Sicily; but while the pope was hesitating whether to accede to his claim, or to regard that of the emperor Joseph, the troops of the latter, under Daun, traversed the papal state to take possession of Naples, 1707, and seized Commacchio, one of the pope's towns, 1708. Clement, however, was forced into a peace, 1709; and he then began a series of squabbles with various princes concerning his rights. First, he alleged that the sees of Parma and Piacenza were in the gift of Rome, against the emperor; against Victor of Savoy, who then possessed Sicily, he complained of the tribunal Di Monarchia in that island interfering with his privileges, the country being but a fief of Rome; and 400 of the clergy, who hereupon opposed its decrees, were compelled to quit Sicily. As respected France, he, in 1713, issued the famous bull *Unigenitus*, which set the whole kingdom in an uproar. This decree condemned 101 propositions of Father Quesnel's '*Moral Reflections on the New Testament*,' which sounded favourably to the Jansenist dogmas of predestination and grace; and the bull being registered by the parliament of Paris, with the consent of Louis XIV., Quesnel took refuge in Hol-

land, where he died 1719. Clement aided the English Pretender with money to raise troops, 1715; and after the failure of that prince's expedition to Scotland, married him to Clementina Sobieski, and gave him a palace at Rome. The Turks having invaded Corfu, 1716, Clement sent a squadron to aid the Venetians, and prevailed on the emperor Charles VI. to the same course. This led to the brilliant campaign of prince Eugene, who defeated the Turks at Peterwaradin, and took Temeswar. After the fall of Alberoni, 1719, Clement succeeded in settling his disputes with Philip V. of Spain; and he died, aged 72, 1721. Clement, though a somewhat secular pontiff, was pious; and his morals were most irreproachable. He established a noble manufactory of tapestry at Rome, and gratefully raised a monument in St. Peter's to his early patroness, Christina of Sweden; in whose learned assemblies in the capitol he had often been the principal figure.

RUSSIA UNDER PETER THE GREAT, &c.—Peter, who may be called the founder of the Russian empire, succeeded his brother, Feodor, 1682, in conjunction with his brother Iwan, though the latter was a martyr to epilepsy. Their sister also, the princess Sophia, claimed a share of the throne; but she was placed for life in a convent, and Iwan dying 1696, Peter became sole czar. He had been, in his early years, wholly devoted to sensual indulgence; and drunkenness, the prevailing vice of the country, had become his besetting sin. No one, therefore, could have imagined that such a man would live to reform not only himself, but his people. He was, however, no sooner a king, than he applied himself to the studies necessary to render him a good one; and having at length passed through all the grades of his army, he, in 1697, led his troops against the Turks, took Azov, and had the satisfaction of seeing his imperfect fleet beat that of the enemy. His ambition now was to improve

his navy; for which purpose he employed some Dutchmen to build small vessels at Moscow. Affecting to send an embassy to Holland, 1698, he travelled therewith *incognito*; and in this way inspected, both in the Netherlands, and in England, every dockyard. At Saardam he worked as a ship-carpenter, under the name of Peter Michaelov; but he was often heard to say that, had he never gone to England, (where he laboured, it is said, in like manner, at Deptford,) he should still have been ignorant of the art of ship-building. In 1700 he had got together a body of standing forces, to the amount of 100,000 men; and the vast project he had formed began to display itself in all its parts. He opened his dominions to foreigners, sent all the young nobility into other states to acquire information, allied himself with Augustus of Poland, and made war upon the young Charles XII. of Sweden. His ill success against the northern hero did not deter him: he used to say, 'I know my armies must be beaten well before they can learn to conquer.' He founded St. Petersburg, 1703, as a new capital; and in 1709 gained a complete victory over the Swedes at Pultowa. In 1712, when in pursuit of Charles XII. into Turkey, he was surrounded by the Turks on the banks of the Pruth; but the Czarina, Catherine, saved her husband and his army, by bribing the grand vizir, in memory of which Peter established what he termed 'the grateful order' of St. Catherine. In 1723, he attacked the Persians, and obtained the provinces of Ghilan and Mazanderan. It would be endless to enumerate the various establishments for which Russia is, at this day, indebted to Peter. He formed an army on the model of the politest nations, had a fleet upon each of the four seas around his country, caused powerful fortresses and convenient harbours to be constructed, and made roads, canals, and bridges, wherever, in his extensive territories, such communica-

tions were needed. Though rough in general manners, and occasionally stern and severe, he was allowed to be the careful rewarder of merit, and the friend of religion and justice; and he died deservedly lamented by his subjects, at the age of 53, 1725.

SWEDEN UNDER CHARLES XII.—This prince was fifteen when his father, Charles XI. died, 1697; and though, by the king's last will, the queen dowager, Hedwiga, was to govern until her grandson should be 18, the States ordered his immediate coronation. He was scarcely 18 when Augustus I. of Poland, Frederick IV. of Denmark, and Peter of Muscovy, thinking to take advantage of his youth, formed the project of assailing him; but the instant that Charles was aware of the league, he resolved to attack his unjust enemies one by one, before they could put their respective armies in motion. Detaching therefore 5000 men to Pomerania, to defend Holstein, whose duke was his brother-in-law, the king, with a fleet composed of 39 Swedish ships of the line, to which the English and Dutch added 30 men of war, sailed in 1700 to Copenhagen; and landing his troops, carried the post of Humblebeck, in spite of the enemy's resistance. King Frederick instantly made peace both with Holstein and Charles; and the latter then proceeded to find the czar Peter, who was ravaging Ingria, on the pretence of having been slighted by the Swedes when he passed *incognito* through their country. At Narva he came up with him, Peter having invested that place with 100,000 men in the depth of winter, the cold being 50 degrees below zero. Charles had not more than 20,000 soldiers, and only 8000 of those were actually in advance when he first attacked the Muscovite outposts; who, retreating upon the main body, astonished the czar's officers by assuring them that the Swedes, with an army larger than their own, were at hand. In the action which ensued, Charles received a bullet in his left shoulder; pre-

sently after, his horse was wounded and fell; and he had no sooner mounted another, than its head was carried off by a cannon-ball. As he was leaping into the saddle of a third, 'These fellows,' said he, 'give one exercise,' and proceeded, regardless of his wound, to urge the carrying of the intrenchments, which in three hours was effected. With 4000 men the king pursued 50,000 Russians towards the bridge, which broke under the pressure; so that the river was filled in an instant, and thousands perished under the ice. Thirty thousand prisoners here surrendered to not a sixth-part of their number; and on the general-in-chief and other officers of the Muscovites giving up their swords, Charles graciously returned them, supplied their leader, the duke of Croy, with 1000 ducats, and every officer with 500, and gave the whole their liberty.

This great victory occurred 1700; and Charles thereupon hastened to attack his third foe, the king of Poland; and having routed his troops at Clissau, near Warsaw, 1702, the cardinal primate was forced to declare James Sobieski, son of the former sovereign, king of Poland. Augustus, however, contrived to seize Sobieski's person, 1704; whereupon Charles, struck with the talents and activity of Stanislaus Leczinski, the young palatine of Posnania, proposed him to the Polish Diet, and as he attended that assembly himself on the day of election, was the first in the crowd to cry out 'Vivat,' when Stanislaus was nominated. The people instantly threw up their hats in the air, and received their new monarch with apparent joy. As the czar was now mustering his forces, with a view to surround the Swedes in Poland, Charles posted with very few men to Borislau on the Beresina, where the Russians intended to dispute his passage. Here, in the night of June 17, 1708, he constructed a bridge, and crossed over to the enemy, before they knew of his arrival in the neighbourhood. At his very name the

Muscovites fled; and at Hollasin, 20,000, who thought themselves safely intrenched behind a morass, were suddenly surrounded by the king and his party, Charles setting the example of leaping into the morass, and with the mud and water above his shoulders, landing sword in hand among them. When Peter heard of this gallant attack, he sued for peace; but Charles, bent on humbling his rival, as he had done Augustus, returned for answer, 'I will only treat with the czar at Moscow.' As Mazeppa, prince of the Cossacks in Ukrania, was then in arms against the czar, Charles was induced to join that chieftain: but Mazeppa's defeat, before this could be effected, placed the king in so dangerous a situation, that had it not been for the arrival of his general Levenhaup with 5000 men, the fate of the Swedish army would speedily have been decided.

The winter of 1708-1709 was one of the severest ever known; and the Swedes, in a country full of marshes, and among a people little above the savage tribes, fell a sacrifice to it, to the amount of 2000 in a few days. Still Charles would proceed: and in May laid siege to Pultowa, on the way to Moscow, with 40,000 men, half Swedes, half Cossacks. In a short space of time, he carried the advanced works, and took the curtain. But one morning, while riding too near the fortifications, he received a shot in the heel; and from his characteristic silence upon the subject (continuing to give orders for six hours afterwards), there was great probability of his being obliged to lose his leg. One of his surgeons told him his only chance of saving it lay in making deep incisions, but that such a course would give his majesty great pain. 'Cut away, friend,' said Charles, 'and fear nothing, I am not afraid;' and while the operation was performing, he held the leg himself with both hands, looking upon all that was doing with perfect coolness. While the wound was being dressed, news arrived that the czar, with 70,000 men, was approach-

ing; and the king ordered his army to be in readiness next morning to give him battle, reminding his officers, that fewer Swedes had before beaten 100,000 Muscovites.

On the 8th of July, 1709, therefore, was fought the battle of Pultowa, between two of the most famous monarchs of modern history. At four in the morning, the Swedes, with Charles in a litter at their head, began the attack, and in a few minutes threw into confusion the main body of the Russians. This success continued for some hours, until Charles for a time got on horseback, to give his orders with greater facility: his leg, however, became extremely painful, and he had just returned to his litter, when two horses which drew it were shot dead, and others had scarcely been put to it, when a cannon-ball struck the carriage to pieces, and overturned the king in the dust. It was soon reported that he was killed, and from that instant the Swedes gave way in all directions: the first line fell back upon the second, and the second fled. Charles, carried upon pikes by four grenadiers, and covered with blood and dirt, called out, 'Swedes! Swedes!' in vain: and had not general Poniatowski, a Polish officer, who had followed the fortunes of Charles, then come up, the king, as well as Mazeppa, would have been captured. Count Piper, and all the officers of the Swedish chancery, fell into the hands of the Russians; but Poniatowski enabled Charles and about 2000 men to cross the Borysthènes, on the way to Turkey. The Bogh, however, was still to be passed; and while delayed on its banks, by the refusal of the Turks to receive a foreign force without an order from the sultan, 500 more of Charles's diminished troops were seized by the Muscovites. After much ceremony, the Swedes were provided with lodgings, and every other convenience, at Bender; where the Cossack prince Mazeppa died.

The czar having advanced upon Turkey soon after Charles's arrival at

Bender, the Turks attacked him on the Pruth, and surrounded him with 200,000 men, to the great delight of the Swedish monarch, who hurried to the scene of action, anxious to witness his rival's disgrace. But before he could reach the Pruth, the Turks had entered into a treaty with the czar; whereupon Charles, returning in a rage to Bender, declared he would not quit Turkey until justice had been done to his cause. The sultan Ahmed III. having intreated him in vain to go, at length threatened to force him out; and the king suffered himself to be besieged at Bender by 26,000 Turks and Tartars, with only 300 Swedes to defend him! The slight intrenchments of the obstinate monarch were carried in an instant, and his 300 surrounded; when Charles, who was on horseback with three officers, Hord, Dardoff, and Sparre, cried, 'Let us go and defend the house: we will fight there *pro aris et focis*!' Immediately he galloped up to his residence, wherein were forty domestics, who had barricaded the building in the best manner they could. A crowd of Janizaries having already got into the house, the king rushed upon them sword in hand; and the fellows, in the height of their alarm, leaped most of them from the windows.

The Swedes, when they had cleared the apartments, barricaded the windows, and through loopholes killed 200 Turks in a few minutes. The cannon of the besiegers had no effect, on account of the thickness of the walls and the softness of the stones: so that they contrived at length to set fire to the wooden roof and doors of the building. The place being soon in flames, one Walberg proposed to the king a surrender. 'What a strange fellow,' said Charles, 'to think it not better to be burned than to be made prisoners!' Another sentinel, Rosen, projected that which pleased the monarch better; namely, that they should escape to the chancery-house, only a few paces off, which had a stone roof, and there

defend themselves. 'Spoken like a true Swede!' exclaimed Charles, and made him a colonel on the spot. Great was the astonishment of the Turks, when they saw the besieged party, whom they supposed suffocated, rush out of the doors unhurt, and with pistols in their hands make for the chancery. Every man fired twice as he came forth, and then drew his sword; and the besiegers, in amazement, retreated full fifty paces before they dared attempt to surround the assailants. The king, however, having long spurs to his boots, was thrown down by their entanglement; when twenty-one Janizaries fell upon and disarmed him. The scene must have been laughable enough, when some taking hold of his arms, and others of his legs, Charles was borne, struggling as he went, to the pacha's quarters: but on a sudden he became calm, and even smiled upon his bearers, as if thinking both he and they had fairly done their parts. The Janizaries hereupon could not help shouting 'Alla!' and treated him at once with the most profound respect. In fact, the troops about Bender had previously shown great attachment to the hero; especially when they saw he went to public prayer morning and evening with his soldiers, and drank nothing but water.

Charles was removed in honourable durance to Demotica; but in order not to seem a prisoner, or to avoid the visits of the Turks, he determined to lie in bed, as if sick, and for ten months never quitted his chamber. Hearing then that affairs were proceeding badly in Sweden, in consequence of his long absence, he asked for passports to return home; and Ahmed very liberally provided him an escort of 300 horse, and sixty waggons laden with provisions of every sort. But Charles hated all ceremony, and gave his escort the slip in the dark, making the best of his way *incognito* on horseback. He had only one attendant, colonel During, whom he soon tired out, and

who, by stratagem, induced the king to travel, after a time, in a post-chaise; and thus, in November, 1715, they arrived at Stralsund, in the Swedish territory, in the night.

In Stralsund Charles's enemies, the kings of Denmark and Prussia, besieged him; and there is no history which records more heroic deeds than those performed on the occasion by the assaulted monarch. The allied kings sat down before the place October 19th; whereon the king of Sweden, with 9000 men, observed 'that no place so well garrisoned and fortified could be taken.' Treachery, however, effected what military skill might not have done. A Swedish soldier, happening to fall from the retrenchments into a marsh that was always covered by the Baltic sea, was surprised to find it had a bottom: and to make his fortune, the villain deserted and told the fact to the enemy. Charles was astonished to find his retrenchments suddenly taken from behind; and got his men into the town again, not without great slaughter. As some Danes and Russians had already landed on the isle of Rugen, over against Stralsund, the king, at eight at night, after he had been all day defending an out-work, embarked in a fishing-boat, and reached the island with Poniatowski, Grothusen, During, and Dardorf. The Swedes, 2000 in number, were however overpowered; and Charles had the mortification to see his favourite Grothusen, During, who had accompanied him from Bender, and general Dardorf, fall. After this fruitless attempt, Charles, shut up in a fortress which was every hour becoming less tenable, by no means gave way to despair. He was surprised at nothing. All the day he was making ditches and intrenchments behind the wall, and at night he sallied out upon the enemy; while the townspeople, though they saw their houses crumbling under the bombs every instant, far from repining, followed their king to the sallies with alacrity, being astonished at his temperance, fatigues, and courage.

One day, as this extraordinary monarch was dictating to a secretary a despatch for Sweden, a bomb falling on the house came through the roof, and burst very near his room. Part of the floor fell, but the closet where he was being worked into a thick wall, was undisturbed; and by great good fortune, none of the splinters came in at the open door. In the confusion, the secretary dropped his pen; when Charles, with his peculiar quickness, said, 'What ails you—why don't you go on?'—'The bomb! Sire, the bomb!' was all that the frightened amanuensis could exclaim.—'The bomb, sir!' said Charles, 'what has the bomb to do with our business?—pray go on.' Charles would converse for hours together in the trenches with count de Croissy, the French ambassador, while people fell on all sides by the bombs and balls, the king never once offering to shift his post. Croissy, however, obtained the enemy's permission to depart; and Charles was left amongst the ruins of Stralsund, with but a third of his garrison remaining. In four days more, the allies obtained almost entire possession. Two days, however, after that, the Swedish hero maintained his post on a little ravelin that was nearly destroyed by the bombs; when the chief officers intreated him to stay no longer. Charles pointed out to them that there was more danger in trying to escape, than in staying there; but you (he said) may go, if you like. They persuaded him, however, at last to get into a small boat: four hours it took to break the ice enough to let the vessel out of the port; and then they had to pass the barbette de Rugen, where the enemy had planted twelve cannon to prevent the king's escape. The first shot killed two of the party, and the next shivered the mast to pieces: the boat, however, surmounted the danger, and in half an hour its little party was taken up by a Swedish frigate.

To revenge himself upon the Danes, Charles besieged Frederickshall in Norway, notwithstanding the

severity of winter, December, 1718. Here, for days and nights, he was only a few hours at a time away from the men employed to construct the trenches, in which, while balls were pouring into them from the enemy's forts, he gave audience to the French ambassador and others, who saw, to their alarm, the labourers drop dead frequently, while within a few feet of the king.

It was upon the 11th of December, that, while kneeling upon the inner talus, he leaned with his elbows upon the parapet, watching the men that were carrying on the trenches by starlight, his body being exposed to a battery of cannon exactly levelled at the angle where he was, and no one being near him but two Frenchmen (Siker, his aide-de-camp, and Megret, an engineer), king Charles was perceived to fall against, and with his head over, the parapet. He had apparently been struck in the right temple by a half-pound ball; and his hand being upon the guard of his sword, as if he had endeavoured to draw it, many afterwards suspected that he had been assassinated by some one from behind—a circumstance highly probable, from the known discontent which prevailed throughout Sweden, on account of the king's ruthless waste, in fruitless wars, of the public finances. He was only thirty-six at the period of his death.

DENMARK AND NORWAY UNDER FREDERICK IV.—He succeeded his father, Christiern V. 1699, and immediately attacked the dominions of the duke of Holstein, as a prelude to his injurious treatment of Charles XII.; but Charles XII. soon obliged him to conclude peace, and fully to recognise the duke's title to his dominions. When Charles was afterwards a fugitive in Turkey, Frederick joined the league against him; but his troops were totally defeated in Schonen. He then invaded Swedish Pomerania, in which he met with very little success; and though he afterwards made himself master of the duchy of Bremen, his army,

united with that of Saxony, was defeated by the Swedes under general Steenbock, who destroyed Altona. In 1715 he joined the king of Prussia in besieging Charles in Stralsund, but derived little advantage therefrom; in 1718, however, his troops were more fortunate in driving the Swedes out of Norway; and peace was concluded in 1720, under the mediation of England, on favourable terms, Frederick retaining the duchy of Sleswick. To Frederick's exertions is due the establishment of a mission in Hindustan, which ultimately became the foundation of the English church in that peninsula. He died in 1730, aged 61.

SPAIN UNDER PHILIP V.—The caprice of Charles II. as before stated, occasioned a civil war at his death, 1700. Philip of Anjou, however, had a party sufficient in the state to ensure his accession, and he accordingly mounted the throne: how he should maintain his elevation became the difficulty. Charles, son of the emperor Leopold, to whom the Spanish crown had been first promised, was at length enabled to rouse the Catalonians in his favour; and by the aid of the Portuguese and English, he landed at Lisbon, and commenced the contest, 1704, with an army of 12,000 men, under the command of the Earl of Peterborough. Barcelona, with a garrison of 5000 men, soon fell to the earl; and, in consequence of this success, Valencia, Aragon, and Granada declared for Charles, while Peterborough, entering Madrid, proclaimed him King of Spain, 1706. Lord Galway succeeded Peterborough as general; and, on hearing that the duke of Berwick was at the head of Philip's troops at Almanza, advanced thither to give him battle, 1707. The Portuguese, however, by whom the English were supported, betaking themselves to flight on the first charge, the soldiers of Galway were flanked, and surrounded on every side; and though they formed themselves into a square,

and retired to an eminence, they were obliged (being ignorant of the country, and destitute of supplies) to surrender as prisoners of war, to the number of 10,000 men. This victory was decisive; and all Spain, except the province of Catalonia, returned to its duty to Philip. The war, however, continued for several years more in the eastern provinces of Spain, as well as in Italy, Germany, and the Netherlands, till 1714; when Charles, who in 1711 had succeeded his elder brother Joseph I. on the imperial throne, as Charles VI., gave up his claims to the Spanish crown at the treaty of Rastadt; retaining, however, Naples and Sardinia, which last he afterwards exchanged for Sicily. In this contest for the Spanish succession, the English under Marlborough, and the Germans under Prince Eugene, acted as allies, in support of the emperor's cause against Philip; and the most part of Queen Anne's reign was occupied thereby. A Bourbon dynasty was now settled on the Spanish throne; and Philip, guided by his minister Alberoni, commenced the reformation of his country. Giulio Alberoni was of mean origin, the son of a gardener near Placentia. After working with his father till the age of 14, he became a priest of the cathedral of Placentia. The duc de Vendôme, who was a general of Spain during the succession war, induced Philip to take him among his counsellors; and when thus raised, he was employed by the duke to supplant the princess d'Urbino (who had gained an ascendancy over the king), by urging his marriage with a princess of the house of Parma. Philip espoused the latter lady; and Alberoni was appointed prime minister, and made a cardinal. His abilities gave vigour to the nation, and infused such a spirit of activity and enterprise, that, after a lethargic repose of a century, Spain rose suddenly to the hardihood and heroic deeds of her forefathers.

Madrid, however, now became the centre of intrigue; and the cardinal having formed the design of placing the Pretender on the English throne by the hands of Charles XII., of seizing Sicily, of depriving the Germans of their power in Italy, together with other vast projects, Orleans, regent of France, and George I. declared war against Philip, 1719, making it a main condition of peace, that Alberoni should be banished from the court. The cardinal accordingly retired to Rome (and died at the age of 88, at Placentia, 1752). Under Alberoni, Philip had established the Salic law in Spain, in accordance with the Bourbon practice, and had added the Balearic isles and Sardinia to his dominions. In consequence of melancholy, Philip resigned the crown, 1724, to his son Louis, and retired to a monastery; but the latter dying in a few months, of smallpox, he resumed the reins of government. In 1733 he joined France against the emperor, Charles VI., his former rival; and he saw his son, Don Carlos, conquer Sicily and Naples, and ascend their throne as Charles III. Philip died 1746, aged 63.

PERSIA UNDER HOSEIN MIRZA.—

This prince succeeded his father, Suliman, 1694, and was noted for his piety, and for his strict performance of the duties enjoined by the Shiah tenets. He had reigned 20 years in profound peace, when the tributary Afghans of Kandahar, under Mir Vais, defeated the armies sent to suppress their revolt, 1715. At length tranquillity was restored; but the son of Mir Vais, Mohammed, with an immense force, invaded Persia, 1722, took Isfahan, and compelled Shah Hosein to surrender both his person and his kingdom. The Seffavéan dynasty was thus for a time set aside, and the Afghans acknowledged supreme in Persia.

POLAND UNDER AUGUSTUS I. (FREDERICK).—The death of Sobieski left the throne of Poland open to the ambition of candidates. His son

James was thwarted in his hopes of succeeding, by the avarice and enmity of his mother. The elector of Bavaria, and the Prince of Conti also aspired to the throne; but the claim of Augustus Frederick, elector of Saxony, prevailed, and the prince of Conti arrived at Dantzic just in time to hear *Te Deum* chanted in honour of his rival's accession. The first aim of Augustus was to recover for Poland its lost possessions of Podolia, the Ukraine, and Kaminietz; and with this view he entered into alliance with Russia and Denmark, and a scheme of conquest, at the expense of Sweden, was projected. Charles XII., however, afforded his enemies no time for their levies, and after promptly silencing the king of Denmark, came upon Augustus; who, beaten at Riga, Clisson, and Frawstadt, was stripped of his dominions, 1704, and saw his crown placed on the head of Stanislaus. The defeat of the Swedes at Pultowa, 1709, proved favourable to Augustus; and recovering his throne, he kept it till his death.—(See *Poland under Augustus I. restored.*)

SCOTLAND UNDER WILLIAM AND MARY.—William, understanding that there were many Scottish presbyterian nobles in London favourable to his cause, summoned them together on his arrival in London, laid before them his intentions, and affected to ask their advice in the existing emergency. The meeting, consisting of 30 noblemen, and about 80 gentlemen, chose the duke of Hamilton president, and after some deliberation, made an offer of the administration to the prince. This he willingly accepted; and a parliament at Edinburgh, March 22, 1689, declared, by a bold and decisive vote, that James had forfeited all title to the crown, and that William and Mary, as next heirs, were henceforward king and queen of Scotland. Presbytery was re-established, the episcopal church of Scotland suppressed, and popery abhorrently proscribed; but

what was singular, the forfeited honours and estates of Argyle, and of many others who had suffered in defence of James, were restored. The Revolution having thus included Scotland, the earl of Balcarras, and Claverhouse, now viscount Dundee, retired from the parliament in disgust. Balcarras was afterwards taken prisoner; but Dundee escaped to the Highlands, where he mustered a tolerable army, and raised his standard for king James. Upon this declaration, 1689, a body of William's troops, under Mackay, attacked him at Killcrankie in Athol. A furious engagement took place; in which the Highlanders fell in among their adversaries, sword in hand, with such impetuosity, that the infantry were routed in a short time, and the dragoons fled at the first charge. Dundee's horse, not exceeding 100, with a steady bravery which was long the talk even of their enemies, broke through Mackay's own regiment; and the earl of Dumbarton, at the head of a few volunteers, made himself master of his artillery. At this critical moment, however, Dundee himself was mortally wounded; and Mackay, with great activity, rallying his forces, boldly returned to the attack, and finally became the conqueror, with the loss of 1200 killed, and 500 prisoners. James had no longer an army in Scotland; Fort George was instantly built to overawe the Highland clans; and the duke of Gordon surrendered the castle of Edinburgh to sir John Lanier. The duke of Hamilton now headed the council; and, that the disaffection of the Highlands might be extinguished, the clans were required by proclamation to lay down their arms by a certain day, and to take the oath of allegiance to William. Indemnity for the past was offered on this condition alone; and the earl of Breadalbane was intrusted with £15,000 to be distributed among the chieftains, that they might be won to their duty. Many, notwithstanding, delayed to comply. Macdonald of

Glencoe was the most obnoxious outlander—an implacable feud having prevailed between him and the dependants of Breadalbane. But being at last fearful of Breadalbane's malice, he hastened in December, 1690, to take the oath of allegiance before colonel Hill, commander of Fort George, who gave him a letter of protection, and sent him to the sheriff of Argyshire at Inverary. A violent storm prevented his arrival there till some days beyond the specified day of grace. The sheriff, in the necessity of the case, yielded to Macdonald's tears and intreaties, received his oath, and transmitted it instantly to the clerk of the privy council. That assembly, however, had been instructed to make an example on the slightest refusal; and William directed sir John Dalrymple, his secretary for Scotland, to compel Macdonald (as if he still refused) to submit to the king's authority. Accordingly, in February, 1691, captain Campbell, of Glenlyon, was sent by the council, with a company of soldiers belonging to Argyle's regiment, to the vale of Glencoe. Macdonald having demanded whether they came as friends or foes, Campbell replied, 'As friends;' and the latter informed the unsuspecting inhabitants, that he was only to remain for some time in quarters peaceably among them; promising, upon his honour, that neither Macdonald, nor his people should sustain the slightest injury. Upon this assurance, the officers were entertained with great hospitality in the houses of the chiefs, while the soldiers found a kind reception among the rest of the clan; and, for fifteen days, joy and festivity reigned throughout the vale. This happy state of things was, however, suddenly reversed. Early on the morning of the sixteenth day, lieutenant Lindsay, with a few soldiers, called at Macdonald's house; and that chief, as he was rising to receive him, was shot through the body, and fell dead on the spot. A general slaughter of the villagers ensued. Neither age nor infirmity were spared;

women defending their children were slain; boys imploring mercy were shot by the men to whose knees they were clinging; and in one room, nine persons sitting at a meal were shot dead through a window. Such as fled to the mountains perished by famine, or by the inclemency of the season, the snow being incredibly deep; and on the day after the massacre, the village of Glencoe was laid in ashes by colonel Hamilton. This barbarous deed, performed under the sanction of William's authority, answered the immediate purpose of the court, by striking terror into the Highlanders; but it, at the same time, produced an aversion in Scotland for William and his government, which all the subsequent arts of his various ministers could never eradicate. The king had all the circumstances of the horrible tragedy related to him, but he took no notice of it; and in the parliament, Dalrymple, now earl of Stair, shamefully declared that the whole had originated in mistake. The transaction added strength and number to the Jacobites, as the Scottish adherents of the exiled James (from *Jacobus*, James) were styled, at the head of whom were the duke of Hamilton, the marquis of Athol, the Drummonds, and the episcopal clergy; while the leaders of the Orange party were the dukes of Argyle and Queensbury, and the earls of Seafield, Melville, and Hynford. Both parties began soon after to be equally dissatisfied with William, on the following account: The Scots having turned their attention to commerce, their parliament established a colony for trading both with India and Africa, on the isthmus of Darien, 1695; but what with sickness from the climate, and the jealousy of the Spaniards and Dutch, who refused the settlers assistance, the latter were about to return home, when it was agreed to solicit aid from the English. The king and commons, however, joined against the colony, which was obliged to surrender to the Spaniards, whereby many of its proprie-

tors were involved in ruin. The public mind was brooding over this signal instance of disregard for Scottish interests, when the king died, in consequence of a fall from his horse, 1702.

IRELAND UNDER WILLIAM III.—During the revolution in England, the two parties in Ireland were kept, as has been shown, in a kind of tranquillity by their mutual fears. Tyrconnel, when disappointed in his views of surrendering Ireland to William, resolved on encouraging the disposition of the catholics to support the cause of the exiled king; and James therefore found a welcome on landing with his French auxiliaries in 1689, though he was subsequently defeated by his son-in-law, near the Boyne, 1690. The last battle fought in favour of James was at Aughrim, 1691. The Jacobites contended with great courage, and the Orange horse were several times repulsed; but St. Ruth, the Irish general, being killed, his troops became discouraged, and retreated into Limerick, after having lost 5000 men. Limerick, the last hold of James's party, made a brave defence; but on seeing the enemy advance within ten paces of the bridge-foot, the soldiers determined to capitulate, and hostilities ceased. By the terms of the negotiation, the Irish catholics were restored to the privileges they had enjoyed in the reign of Charles II.; and all who had fought for king James having free leave to remove with their effects to any country, save England and Scotland, 14,000 Irish people departed for France, in transports provided by the government. Many political reasons concurred to preserve the Irish from the punishment they now expected at William's hand; and as the friends of the Revolution were sufficiently gratified out of the confiscated estates, it was thought prudent not to put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. All the ports of Ireland were allowed to open for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and throughout the

remainder of the reign, and that of Anne, a disposition was shown by the English parliament to encourage in every possible manner both the commerce of Ireland, and the attention of the Irish people to the arts of peace.

PRUSSIA RAISED TO A KINGDOM.—

The elector Frederick III. of Brandenburg married Sophia Charlotte, sister of our George I., 1684, and succeeded to his father's dominions, 1688. He was deformed, and unlearned; but though weakly in body, he possessed a most aspiring soul. Immediately on his accession, he aided the prince of Orange with 6000 men, in his expedition to England; and in 1691 joined the grand alliance between the emperor, Spain, Holland, and England, against France, and sent 15,000 men to the Netherlands, of whom the prince of Orange (now king William) had the command. His ambition inciting him to obtain the title of *king*, he induced the emperor to award it him, 1700; for which he renounced the arrears of the subsidy due by Austria, engaged to maintain 10,000 men in the war of the succession, and agreed, in all the affairs of the empire, to vote with Austria. As the ally of that power, he accordingly sent 20,000 men to the Rhine, and 6000 to Italy, who distinguished themselves in the battles of Blenheim, Turin, &c.; but he did not live to see the war close, dying, aged 60, 1713. Frederick founded the university of Halle, the academy of sculpture and painting at Berlin, and the order of the Black Eagle.

HOLLAND UNDER WILLIAM III.—

The youth of this prince, the posthumous son of William II., whom he succeeded as stadtholder, 1650, was passed among violent party-contests; originating in the suspicions which the republican party entertained that the house of Orange meditated designs against public liberty, and in the conditions made by Cromwell against it, as a branch of that of Stuart, in the peace of 1654. The Restoration in England gradually

opened the way to the recovery of the authority possessed by its ancestors; and in opposition to the most strenuous efforts of the party, headed by John De Witt, which had procured the abolition of the stadtholdership, William was, in 1672, chosen captain-general of the force raised to resist the invasion of Louis XIV. The edict for abolishing the stadtholdership was also soon revoked; and on the murder of the De Witts, William obtained full authority as stadtholder, at the age of twenty-two. The prince affected to be touched at so terrible a sacrifice in his favour, made the pensionary's eulogium, and ordered the murderers to be prosecuted; but the clemency he then showed them, the advantages he obtained by the massacre, and the animosity he had borne the victims, convinced all men that he had countenanced the deed. The grand policy of William was to create an opposition to the designs of France; and in this he was so successful, that there was not a power in Europe upon whom Louis could rely. The army of Brandenburg, commanded by the elector, and that of the empire under Montecuculi, in all 40,000 men, were opposed by Turenne, Louis's generalissimo, for several months, in their attempt to pass the Rhine; and Condé, another French general, took Maestricht, and would have extended his conquests, had not the Dutch resorted to their usual defence of letting in the water. But whatever glory Louis acquired by land, the conduct of his admirals deserved equal praise. In little more than a year, the French were taught the art of naval war. Before, they fought ship to ship, but understood nothing of those evolutions by which whole fleets imitate the movements of armies. The duke of York, afterwards James II., invented the method of giving orders at sea by signals: this and every other part of the art the French borrowed from the English, and became singularly apt scholars. Their fleet, joined to that of

the English, gave battle three different times to the Dutch, whose admiral De Ruyter, however, was commonly victorious. At length Turenne could neither prevent the junction of Montecuculi and the prince of Orange, nor the loss of Bonn; and the French hereupon abandoned the provinces they had conquered. The triumphal arch of St. Denis was scarcely completed as a monument of the victories of Louis, before the fruits of those victories were relinquished; and England and other powers having withdrawn from the alliance with France, the peace of Nimeguen closed the contest, 1678. Still, to humble Louis XIV. was the ruling passion of William's breast; and to fix the English court in the same interest, he sought the hand of, and came to London to be united to, Mary, eldest daughter of the duke of York, 1678. How singularly his way was thus paved to the British throne is shown in the English history; and the Revolution of 1688 forms an important epocha. In 1689, William, now king of England, renewed the war with Louis for his support of James II.; and during nine years the continent was disturbed by the alternate ravages of the English and Dutch, French and Germans. The French cruelly devastated the Palatinate, burning the fine cities of Worms and Spire; the duke of Lorraine, commanding the imperialists, took Mentz; the duke of Luxemburg, for Louis, gained the battle of Fleuris, 1690; Catinat defeated the duke of Savoy at Staffarde, and at Marseilles, 1690; Louis XIV. in person took Mons, 1691, and Namur, 1692; and the duke of Luxemburg again gained the victory at Steinkerque, 1692, and defeated the prince of Orange, with great slaughter, at Nerwinde, 1793. Marshal de Noailles defeated the Spaniards in Catalonia, 1694; Namur was retaken by king William, in the presence of 80,000 French, and the English bombarded Calais, Dunkirk, Dieppe, Havre, and St. Malo, 1695. At length,

overpowered by the abilities of Luxembourg, William was compelled to conclude a peace at Nimeguen, 1697. His enmity to Louis, however, was not yet extinguished; and he employed the remainder of his life in forming a most powerful confederacy against him. Even in his dying moments, hostility to the French monarch appeared to overpower every other consideration. The last years of William were in no respect indicative of his love of England. Regarding its commons as a body of men desirous of power for themselves, and consequently bent upon obstructing all his projects to secure the liberties of Europe, he veered to whigs and tories indiscriminately, as interest or the immediate exigence demanded. He considered England as a place of labour, anxiety, and altercation; and if he had any time for relaxation, he retired to Loo, in Holland, where, among a few friends, he gave a loose to those coarse festivities, which that coterie alone was capable of relishing. He died, 1702.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER WILLIAM AND MARY.—It was in 1698 that Azim-Shan, subahdar of Bengal, allowed the Company to purchase the zemindarship of Sutanuti, Calcutta, and Govindpur; upon which a fort was erected by the English at Cal-

cutta, termed, in honour of William III., Fort William. The nucleus of the third great division of British India was thus formed. The unsettled state of the Indian governments, the frequent conflicts of competitors, not only for a throne, but for the administration of a province, the incursions of predatory bands, and the exactions and tyranny of the local authorities, made it highly necessary for traders in India to have the power of defending themselves: hence the advantage of an united association, and of forts, and troops, and revenues for their support, in the early stages of the commerce between India and the people of Europe. It has been justly remarked by professor Wilson, that had British trade been carried on without vexatious impediments, the English would never have sought the military means of political power in Hindustan; and though this sounds something like an apology for what has been done amiss—it still remaining to be proved what moral right one nation has to settle on the territories of another, without the previous consent of the latter—we believe it the best method of viewing a matter, wherein whatever has been done wrong cannot now be repaired.

EMINENT PERSONS.

ISAAC NEWTON (1642—1727), who came into the world in the year that the great Galilei died, and went a step higher (to the highest step yet attained) in physical discovery, was born of an ancient family, settled at Woolstrobe, Lincolnshire. From Grantham school, where he was not at all remarkable for application, he was removed, at 18, to Trinity college, Cambridge; and there, under the erudite Isaac Barrow, his mind seemed suddenly to expand to mathematical science. So easily did he comprehend Euclid, that he quickly passed to higher pursuits. In 1664 he discovered a new method of infinite series and

fluxions; he then applied to the subjects of light and colour, and by means of a glass prism, made experiments which laid the foundation of his theory regarding those phenomena. Returning from Cambridge, on account of the plague, 1665, to his house at Woolstrobe, new truths were soon open to his ever active mind. Whilst sitting alone in his garden, the falling of some apples from a tree led his thoughts to the subject of gravity; and considering that this power is not sensibly diminished at the remotest distance from the centre of the earth, even at the top of the highest mountains, he thought that it must be extended

much farther. The examination, however, of this hypothesis he deferred, on account of being obliged to return to Cambridge; where in 1669 he succeeded Barrow in the mathematical chair. While again giving his attention to gravitation, the comet of 1680 induced him to inquire into the truth of Kepler's supposition regarding the motion of the primary planets; and after establishing his conclusions on infallible proofs, he gave to the public the result of his labours in his '*Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica*,' 1687. This performance, familiarly styled the *Principia*, which set his name far above the philosophers of ancient and modern times, met with opposition; but as its truths required study and labour to comprehend them, it gained only by slow degrees universal admiration. The author was deservedly made master of the Mint, 1699, with an ample salary, which he enjoyed till his death; in 1703 was chosen president of the royal society, and adorned that chair 24 years; and in 1705 was knighted by queen Anne. He was treated with the greatest consideration both by that sovereign and her successor, George I.; and the princess of Wales, afterwards queen Caroline, used to say, she considered herself happy in being born in an age, when she could enjoy the conversation and instructions of so illustrious a philosopher. This truly great man died, aged 85, 1727; and his body, after lying in state in the Jerusalem chamber, was conveyed to Westminster-abbey for interment. Sir Isaac was short and corpulent. His look was languid, and his eye dull. In company he spoke little, and was rarely supposed, in general society, a man of ability. He never wore spectacles, nor lost more than one tooth; and when he rode in his carriage, would sit with an arm out of either window. Great as were his acquirements, he recognised his own littleness in thus speaking just before his death: 'I know not what

I may appear to the world; but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the sea-shore, and diverting myself by now and then finding a smoother pebble, or prettier shell than ordinary: whilst the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me.' Fluxions were the invention of Newton, while analysis and optics were greatly aided by his inquiries; but his grand theory of the laws of gravitation is that which must render his name immortal. Accomplishing his discoveries almost unconscious of their greatness, he ascribed them, as men of genius usually do, to mere patient drudging thought. But his thoughts were the highest flights of mind; and what to him was a mere ordinary deduction, would have seemed to an inferior spirit a gigantic effort. As an experimentalist, he elicited results which challenge preference over those of almost any other philosopher; and whilst in abstract mathematics he had no rival but Leibnitz, in the applied departments of mathematical science he was superior to all men but the modern Laplace. The whole range of physico-mathematical dynamics, and especially its application to the actual phenomena of the planetary system, is due to the unaided powers of Newton's master mind.

JOHN LOCKE (1632—1704), born at Wrington, near Bristol, was educated at Westminster school, and Christchurch, Oxford. He applied to medicine; but though he obtained some reputation at Oxford, he found his constitution inadequate to the fatigues of the profession, and went as secretary to Sir William Swan, envoy to the elector of Brandenburg, 1664. Two years after, he became acquainted with lord Ashley, afterwards earl of Shaftesbury; and by curing him of a dangerous abscess in the breast, obtained his lasting friendship. He relinquished physic for politics and history, and drew up constitutions for the government of

Carolina, which his friend, now chancellor of the exchequer, and other lords, had obtained from the crown. In 1672 Shaftesbury, become lord chancellor, made him secretary of the representations; and after the disgrace of his patron, he continued secretary to the board of trade, with a salary of 500*l*. In 1675 he went to Moulpellier, as he was apprehensive of a consumptive attack, and devoted himself once more to medicine, and to the composition of his 'Essay on the Human Understanding,' till, in 1679, Shaftesbury, now president of the council, called him home. The earl in six months was again disgraced, and imprisoned, and in 1682 escaped to Holland; where Locke, equally faithful to him in adversity as in prosperity, followed him. There, by his intercourse, after the earl's death, with suspected persons, he was accused by the English envoy of treasonable correspondence in favour of Monmouth's invasion; but he concealed himself, and when he returned to England, in consequence of the revolution, was made commissioner of appeals, and subsequently of trade and plantations, and enjoyed the *otium cum dignitate* in the retirement which he found in the house of sir Francis and lady Masham, at Oates, where he died, aged 72, 1704. Locke's chief work, the 'Essay,' though often prolix, discursive, and obscure, is certainly the best ontological treatise we have; but it has justly subjected the author to the reproach of making indirect attacks upon revealed religion.

JOHN DRYDEN (1631—1701), born at Aldwinkle, Northamptonshire, was educated at Westminster under Busby, and at Trinity college, Cambridge. Devoting himself to poetry, he was made laureat, 1668, and though at one period in comparative wealth, was then seen writhing under the harrow of poverty. Being ridiculed, 1671, under the name of 'Bays,' in Buckingham's comedy of the 'Re-

hearsal,' he fully resented it in his Absalom and Achitophel, by representing Charles II. as David, Monmouth as Absalom, Shaftesbury as Achitophel, and Buckingham as Zimri. In 1685 he turned catholic, a conduct which exposed him to the satire of the wits of the time; and when he was in consequence deprived of the laurel, lord Dorset, with his usual generosity, continued the salary to him out of his own pocket. The spleen of Dryden on this occasion was discharged with astonishing effect on his successor, in 'Mac Flecknoe,' a satire the severest perhaps that has appeared in any country or language. The poet continued writing till his death, at the age of 70, 1701. Dryden's chef-d'œuvre is his paraphrase of Virgil, though composed, as all his works were, in a haste which cannot be commended. His ode on St. Cecilia's day is a very fine production; and his Fables, written in old age, are remarkable for energy, imagination, and ease.

HENRY PURCELL (1658—1695), born in London, became a chorister in the king's chapel, and had Dr. Blow for his master, who became so proud of the talents of his pupil, as to have it signified on his monument, 'that he had been master to the famous Mr. Henry Purcell.' In 1676, at 18, Purcell was chosen organist of Westminster-abbey, and in 1682 of the chapel-royal; and his fame rapidly spread as a composer of sacred music, until all prior productions of the kind were superseded. Indeed, until the rise of Handel thirty years after, no other vocal music than Purcell's seems to have been regarded in England; and to this day there has never been a composer whose works have been so congenial with the national taste. He died, aged only 37, 1695. His greatest works are 'Te Deum,' 'Jubilate,' 'Ye twice ten hundred Deities' (considered the finest piece of recitative in the world), a series of anthems, and a whole service in the key of B flat. His bro-

ther Daniel was an organist also, but far more renowned as the first punster of his day.

GILBERT BURNET (1643—1715), born at Edinburgh, was educated at Aberdeen, and under his father acquired such habits of industry, that he never, till old age, discontinued the custom of rising at four o'clock to prosecute his studies. At twenty he visited Holland; and by conversing with foreigners, acquired those notions of universal toleration, which eventually so much influenced his conduct. On his return to Scotland, 1665, he was ordained; but his attempts to reconcile the presbyterians and episcopalians gave offence; and coming to London, he was made preacher of the Rolls chapel. His first two volumes of the 'History of the Reformation' received the thanks of both houses of parliament; but, by the king's command, he was discharged from the Rolls chaplaincy, for having attended lord Russell at his trial, 1682. Thus again induced to visit the continent, he was received with every mark of respect by Louis XIV.; and so remarkable was the attention paid him by the prince of Orange, that James II. sent to require his banishment from the Netherlands, which, however, was not complied with. He accompanied the prince on his invasion of England, and was raised to the see of Salisbury; but on asserting in a pamphlet that William's title to the crown was founded on conquest, the parliament had the offensive paper burnt by the hangman. Burnet resided in his diocese the better part of his time; and though engaged as preceptor to the duke of Gloucester, he devoted himself much to improve the comforts of his clergy, by augmenting poor livings, and died much respected, aged 72, 1715. The 'History of his Own Times' is the work by which the character and talents of bishop Burnet are best ascertained. It gave immense offence by the freedom of its anecdote, and the little ceremony with which it treated the politics and

people of the day, and is, after all, but an ill-digested compilation, though evincing the author's extensive knowledge of the world and of human nature.

THOMAS WILSON (1668—1755), born at Burton Wirral, Cheshire, completed his education at Trinity college, Dublin; and, after taking orders, became tutor to lord Strange, son of the earl of Derby, who was squire of the parish of Winwick, his first curacy. The earl subsequently offered him the see of Sodor and Man, which island was his estate; but he declined it, though he eventually accepted it, 1696. With a revenue of only £800 a year, he entered upon his diocesan duties, built a new chapel at Castleton, and founded parochial libraries throughout Man. In 1721 he quarrelled with the governor of the island, for allowing the introduction of an obnoxious book; and the latter found means to imprison the prelate. The privy-council, however, reversed the sentence; but nothing could induce the amiable bishop to prosecute the magistrate for his injurious conduct. He was so attached to the island, that he refused an English see; and he died there, aged 92, 1755. His 'Duties of Christianity' was the first book ever printed in the Manks language; and his work on the Sacrament is too well known to need commendation.

EDWARD STILLINGFLEET (1685—1699), born at Cranbourn, Dorset, and educated at St. John's, Cambridge, took holy orders, and in 1662 published 'Origines Sacræ,' or a rational account of natural and revealed religion: a work remarkable for erudition, elegance, strength, and clearness of argument, and which caused him to be made bishop of Worcester, 1689. He attacked the great Locke, for his side-blows at revealed religion, with skill and temper, and died, aged 64, 1699.

ANTHONY ASHLEY COOPER (1671—1713), earl of Shaftesbury, grandson of the earl of Charles II.'s reign, was born in London. Being of de-

licate health, he was wholly educated at home, and then made the usual 'grand tour' of the continent. He neither before coming to his title would take his seat in the commons (for Poole), nor after that event in the lords; and at length resided wholly in Italy, where he died of consumption, 1718, aged 42. He is alone known by his 'Characteristics,' a work displaying considerable ingenuity, but little good sense. Carried away by his idolatry of the ancient philosophers, he seriously thought that man might walk best by their dark lights; and, with the usual scepticism and fool-hardiness of half-educated men, embraced every opportunity of sneering at such as rejoice in the glorious sunbeams of revelation.

JOHN EVELYN (1620—1706), born at Wotton, Surrey, left Baliol college, Oxford, for the continent, at the breaking out of the civil war; and being of a wealthy family, devoted seven years to an inquiry into the habits, agriculture, commerce, and productions of European nations. In 1647, at Paris, he married the daughter of sir Richard Browne, Charles's minister there; and on his return to England, after the king's death, 1651, resided at his own seat, Sayes Court, Kent. Attached to a life of retirement, he had little concern with public affairs; but after the expulsion of Richard Cromwell, he promoted the Restoration. At the establishment of the royal society, 1662, he was appointed one of its fellows; and in 1664, was one of the commissioners of the sick and wounded, and also for rebuilding St. Paul's. In 1669 Oxford gave him the degree of LL.D. for the active part he had taken in causing the Arundelian marbles to be presented to that learned body. Under James II. he was one of the commissioners to execute the office of lord privy seal; and at the revolution he was appointed treasurer of Greenwich hospital. He died, aged 86, 1706. He is now chiefly remembered by his 'Sylvæ, or a discourse of

Forest Trees,' which caused more than two millions of timber-trees to be planted in one year in the kingdom; and by his 'Memoirs,' a journal extending nearly from his childhood to his death, which contains much curious matter relative to the manners, history, and politics of the age.

NICOLAS BOILEAU (1636—1711), surnamed *Despreaux*, was born at Paris of a good family, and devoted his days to polite literature. His 'Satires' first made him known, 1666; and soon after appeared his best work, the 'Art of Poetry.' Louis XIV. pensioned him, declaring, when he made the grant, 'he wished his subjects to partake the same intellectual gratification which he himself enjoyed.' Boileau died, aged 75, 1711. The Art of Poetry (an attempt to rival the *Ars Poetica* of Horace) is a monument of Boileau's genius, taste, and judgment.

FRANÇOIS FENELON (1651—1715), surnamed *Delamotte*, was born of a high family at the castle of Fenelon, in Perigord; and, on quitting the university of Paris, took holy orders. After the revocation of the edict of Nantes, he was sent, 1686, at the head of the missionaries, to convert the protestants of the coast of Santonge, and had extraordinary success. In 1689 he was appointed tutor to the dukes of Burgundy, Anjou, and Berri; and, in 1695, Louis XIV. made him bishop of Cambrai. In 1697 he was exposed to persecution by the publication of his 'Explication of the Maxims of the Saints, concerning the Inward Life,' in which he supported the claims of Madame Guyon to mystical devotion; but when he was sent by Louis to the pope for his opinion, Innocent XI., in condemning it, declared, 'Fenelon has erred from excess of love to God; but his opponents, from excess of love to their neighbour.' The archbishop read the pope's decision in his diocese, willingly acknowledging his imputed error; and soon after, he assisted the Jesuits against the Jansen-

Molière. *Charles de St. Evremond*, of a noble family in Normandy, quitted the army in consequence of his satire on the prince de Condé, and was then imprisoned three months in the Bastille by Mazarin for some political squib. In the war of the Fronde he took the side of the court, but was obliged to fly to England for his censure of the peace of the Pyrenees in a letter to M. Créquy. He was well received at the gay court of Charles II.; and as all solicitations for his recall proved fruitless, he passed the rest of his life in this country, and from his vivacity, and love of youthful society, was regarded as a perfect model of French *bonhomie*. He died, aged 80, 1703, and was interred in Westminster-abbey. His 'Essays' were once extremely popular in England, coming as they did from the lively pen of a wealthy and tasteful resident French author; but there is really nothing solid in them. *William Sherlock* (1641—1707), born in Southwark, was educated at Eton, and Peterhouse, Cambridge, and taking holy orders, at length became master of the temple. He at first refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, but ultimately complied, and was made dean of St. Paul's, 1691. He wrote on 'Death and the Last Judgment,' and was embroiled in a controversy with South concerning the Trinity. *Thomas Hobbes* (1588—1679), born at Malmesbury, Wilts, completed his education at Magdalen-hall, Oxford, and then made a tour of Europe with the earl of Devonshire's son, as tutor. On losing, by death, both patron and pupil, he became preceptor to the son of sir Gervase Clifton; but the countess of Devonshire induced him to take charge of her second son, now earl, with whom he travelled to Paris, and afterwards to Italy. In this last tour, Hobbes became acquainted with Mersenne, Gassendi, Galilei, and other eminent men; and returning to England, 1637, he re-

sided at Chatsworth, till, alarmed by the rumour of civil disturbances, he again visited Paris, 1641. There he published a series of ethical and political works, which at length occasioned his flight to Chatsworth for protection from literary and civil opponents, 1652; and in that elegant retreat he was permitted to pass the remainder of his life, which terminated at the great age of 91. The most striking work of Hobbes is his 'Leviathan, or the Matter, Form, and Power of a Commonwealth, ecclesiastical and civil,' a monstrous attempt to overturn every existing moral and religious institution. As the author found support in the principles of the philosopher Locke, his absurd efforts to invalidate the early scripture authorities were attacked *vi et armis* by a host of indignant clerical and lay writers; who thus gave importance to a scheme of infidelity, of which the sceptics from his day to that of Hazlitt have delighted in displaying their admiration. *Gilles Menage* (1613—1692), born at Angers, quitted the bar, where he had been highly successful, for holy orders, and converted all his property into an annuity, that his literary engagements might be undisturbed by family affairs. He passed his life in the society of the learned of France and Italy, and obtained preferment as an abbé, without cure of souls; but the French Academy rejected him on account of his witty satire 'Requête des Dictionnaires,' attacking the Dictionary of the Academy. His greatest work is 'Dictionnaire Etymologique de la Langue Française,' and a compilation entitled 'Ménagiana,' affords a very pleasing notion of his conversational wit and anecdote. *Isaac Papin* (1657—1709), born at Blois, was refused orders at Geneva, in consequence of his opposition to the calvinistic notion of grace, but obtained them under James II. in England, and then became professor of divinity among the French refugees at Dantzic. The

hostility of Jurieu, with whom he entered into controversy, drove him from his post, and he then entered the Romish church. *Pierre Jurieu* (1637—1713), born at Mer, near Blois, took orders in England, but was afterwards induced by the Calvinists of Geneva, who denounced episcopal ordination, to receive the Geneva form. While professor of Hebrew at Sedan, he commenced a controversial life in defence of protestantism, attacking polemical authors of all countries, and involving himself in continual quarrels. His '*Histoire des Dogmes et des Cultes*' is his best work, and the one freest from his intolerant principles. *Jean de la Bruyère*, born at Dourdan, was preceptor to the duke of Burgundy, and author of '*Characters*,' in the manner of Theophrastus; a work of established excellence, but which necessarily produced the author more enemies than friends. He died, aged 52, 1699. *Joseph de Tournefort* (1656—1708), born at Aix, devoted his whole life to botany, and traversed the mountains of Dauphiné, Savoy, Catalonia, and the Pyrenees, in search of plants. His success induced the king of France to send him to Greece, Asia Minor, and Egypt, in the same pursuit; and he thus greatly enriched science as well as embellished horticulture. He was some time a physician at Montpellier, and died professor of medicine in the college royal. *Sir Paul Ricaut*, travelled over Europe, Asia, and Africa, was secretary to lord Winchelsea at the Porte, consul at Smyrna 11 years, in 1685 went as secretary for Leinster and Connaught under lord Clarendon, and in 1688 was made judge of the Irish admiralty, and knighted by James II. He then went as English resident in the Hanse Towns, and died 1700. His '*History of the Ottoman Porte*' was long the chief work of authority in Turkish affairs. *Robert Hooke* (1635—1702), born at Freshwater, in the Isle of Wight, finished his studies at Christ-church, Oxford, but was disinclined, through

defective health, from entering any profession. He at length turned his attention to the chemical experiments making at Oxford by Willis and Boyle; and a subsequent attention to mathematics enabled him to obtain the chair of geometry at Gresham college. He improved the telescope, regarding the dioptric sort as superior to those with plain sights, in which he has since been found correct; and he had disputes with the great Newton both regarding his theory of light and colours, and his claim to the discovery of gravitation, the latter of which he declared his own. Hooke, who received the degree of M.D. from Tillotson, is now best known by his '*Micrographia*,' or philosophical accounts of minute bodies as seen through the microscope. *Guillaume, Marquis de l'Hôpital* (1661—1704), born at Paris, was son of the master of the horse to the duke of Orleans. His defective sight obliging him to quit the army, he took the advice of Father Malebranche, whom he consulted on all occasions, and devoted himself to mathematical science. On solving some very difficult questions of James Bernouilli, his fame rose; and at length Huyghens did not scruple to consult him on points connected with the differential calculus, a compliment which led to his '*L'Analyse des Infinimens Petits*,' 1696, the first French book on the subject. *Sir John Holt* (1642—1709), born at Thame, Oxon, was the son of sir Thomas, recorder of Abingdon, and completed his studies at Oriel, Oxford. He was a short time recorder of London, but was opposed to James II., and did not rise till the revolution; when William elevated him to the chief-justiceship of the King's Bench, a post which he held with great credit until his decease. He was a steady advocate for the paramount importance of the civil over the military power of the country; and he is lauded by his biographers for threatening an officer and troop, who were about to quell a London riot, with hanging, if they

killed a single hero of the mob. *Sir Robert Atkyns* (1621—1709), born in Gloucestershire, was educated at Baliol college, Oxford, and became a judge of the common-pleas, 1672. He resigned his seat on the bench, 1679, on account of his disgust at the arbitrary measures of the ministry, but acted still as a lawyer; and, when consulted in the case of lord Russel, 1683, he gave it as his firm opinion 'that there is not, nor ought to be, any such thing as *constructive treason*; since it defeats the very scope and design of the statute 25 Edw. III., which is to make a plain declaration on what shall be adjudged treason by the ordinary courts of justice.' Under William, sir Robert was lord-chief baron of the Exchequer, and speaker of the lords, 1689; and in 1695 he retired from public life to his seat at Sapperton, Gloucestershire, where he died, aged 88. His son, a second *sir Robert Atkyns* (1646—1711), passed a life of learned ease on his estate in the country, and is now respected for his valuable 'History of Gloucestershire,' a most accurate book, and regarded as a key to the descent of landed property in that county. *John Keill* (1671—1721), born at Edinburgh, entered at Baliol college, Oxford, as a Scotch exhibitioner, became a very able illustrator of Newton's system, and was made Savilian professor of astronomy, 1710. His chief works are 'Introductio ad veram Physicam,' and 'Introductio ad veram Astronomiam.' *Richard Simon* (1638—1712), born at Dieppe, entered the congregation of the Oratoire, but quitted it on account of its censure of his love of paradoxical controversy, and his latitudinarianism, as shown in his 'Histoire Critique du Vieux Testament,' and a similar work on the Gospel. Were all theologians to take the course of Father Simon, and set up their own judgment as the infallible interpreter of scripture, we should soon see an universal

apathy for all religious forms obtain. *Jean Vaillant* (1632—1706), born at Beauvais, became a celebrated numismatist under the patronage of Louis XIV. and Colbert, who encouraged him to travel over Italy, Sicily, and Greece, in search of coins and medals. On one occasion, fearing to lose his treasures when seized by pirates, he swallowed them, trusting to nature to restore them to him. *Sebastian Vaillant* (1669—1722), born near Pontoise, became a celebrated botanist, and director of the royal French gardens. He published a valuable book, giving an account of the plants then growing about Paris, entitled 'Botanicon Parisiense.' *George Farquhar* (1678—1707), born at Londonderry, was educated at Dublin University, and then went on the stage, till he nearly killed a fellow actor by forgetting to exchange his sword for a foil. Coming to London thereupon, 1696, he became a playwright, and continued such till his decease, in poverty, at the age of 29. His best (though a purrulent) production is 'The Beaux' Stratagem.'

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1687, Sulciman III.; 1691, Ahmed II.; 1695, Mustafa II. POPES.—1676, Innocent XI.; 1689, Alexander VIII.; 1691, Innocent XII.; 1700, Clement XI. FRANCE.—1643, Louis XIV. RUSSIA.—1682, Iwan V. and Peter I.; 1696, Peter I. alone, first emperor. SWEDEN.—1660, Charles XI.; 1697, Charles XII. DENMARK and NORWAY.—1670, Christiern V.; 1699, Frederick IV. PORTUGAL.—1683, Pedro II. SPAIN.—1665, Charles II.; 1700, Philip V. GERMANY.—1658, Leopold I. POLAND.—1674, John III., Sobieski; 1696, Augustus I., Frederick. PRUSSIA.—1700, Frederick I. PERSIA. 1666, Suliman; 1694, Hosein Mirza. NETHERLANDS.—1672, William III. DELHI.—1658, Aurungzeb. CHINA.—1661, Kang-hi. HUNGARY.—1687, Joseph I.

REIGN CLXX.

ANNE, QUEEN OF ENGLAND.

1702 TO 1714—12 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—Anne was second daughter of James II. by the lady Anne Hyde, and was born 1664. She married prince George, son of Frederick III. of Denmark, 1683, and had by him no less than thirteen children; all of whom died in infancy but one, William, duke of Gloucester, born, 1689, died, aged 11, 1700. Anne was of the middle height and well-proportioned: her hair brown, her complexion ruddy, her features regular, and her aspect more comely than majestic. She was naturally clever, but her education had been neglected: and not having much vigour of body, she displayed throughout her reign the character of an amiable woman, rather than of a great queen. Having sorely repented of her undutiful conduct as a daughter, she became an excellent wife, mother, and friend; as a mistress she was most indulgent, as a friend highly constant. She was warmly attached to the church of England, and to her people, and fully merited the title she so generally acquired of 'the good queen Anne.' Her husband, prince George, died six years before her, 1708.

Political History. Anne ascended the throne 1702, in her thirty-ninth year, to the satisfaction of all parties. William had died on the eve of a war with France; and the new queen, who took the advice of both whigs and tories, knew not whether it would be better to prosecute that war, or remain at peace. The earl of Rochester, head of the tories, was for peace: the earl (afterwards duke) of Marlborough, the leader of the whigs, was for war. The whigs prevailing, war was declared, on the ground that Louis XIV. had invaded the liberties of Europe, by taking possession of the Spanish dominions, and by acknowledging the title of the Pretender to the throne of England.

Louis, who had been long fettered by the policy of William, was solacing himself when he heard of his death, and was greatly surprised therefore at the hostility of Anne, whom he regarded as favourable to the Jacobites, whose cause he had himself so long upheld. Nevertheless he made hasty preparations; and when Marlborough, at the head of 60,000 English arrived at Nimeguen, 1702, the duke of Burgundy, with Marshal de Boufflers as his acting general, was ready to oppose him with an army of tolerable strength. The first campaign, in which the French constantly gave ground, ended in Marlborough's taking Liege, in which was an immense sum of money: while at sea, the duke of Ormond, at Vigo, had captured eleven galleons, with above a million of money in silver. But in other respects naval matters were not successful; especially in the case of admiral Benbow, who, while bravely attacking the French admiral Du Casse in the West Indies, was basely deserted by his fleet, and left to fight for four days alone, against the whole French squadron. Marlborough's second campaign was of no moment; but in 1704 he was opposed by marshals de Villeroy and Tallard, the two best-reputed generals of France, when, assisted by prince Eugene of Savoy, he wholly defeated them at Blenheim, and got possession of one hundred leagues of country. While the English were thus successful by land, Sir George Rooke took Gibraltar by sea, and defeated the French off Malaga. At the same juncture Anne's ministry took up the cause of the emperor's son Charles. in his attempt upon the Spanish crown, fitting out a fleet and army in England for him; but the English cared for little but the successes of their favourite

Marlborough, who, in 1706, at the battle of Ramillies, wholly defeated Villeroy again, and thus obtained all Brabant.

It was now that the tories, who had become paramount in Anne's court, accused Marlborough of pursuing his own glory rather than that of the nation. Taxes were daily increasing. Spanish affairs, too, looked darkly; the duke of Berwick had entirely routed the English supporters of the German prince, and Philip was again recognised as king of Spain. Sir Cloudesley Shovel, rear-admiral, had found a watery grave, together with all in his own ship, and the crews of many others of his fleet, in a violent storm amongst the Scilly rocks; Marshal Villars, again, was beginning to recover ground in Bavaria; and what was worse than all, Marlborough himself, throughout 1707, marched and countermarched, but declined to engage the enemy. Dissatisfaction and gloomy fear soon overspread the country: and it was a happy circumstance that the union with Scotland was at this instant forced upon the attention of the nation, to divert it from the state of continental affairs.

The treaty which effected the Union, stipulated that the succession to the United Kingdom should be vested in the house of Hanover; that England and Scotland should be represented by one parliament; that all the subjects of what was now to be called Great Britain, should enjoy a communion of privileges; that Scotland should be represented in the parliament by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners; that all peers of Scotland should be considered as peers of Great Britain; and that the courts of law in Scotland should remain with the same authority and privileges as before the Union. So important a measure was not carried without a considerable display of violence in the English house of commons, 1707. The Scots at the same time complained of the loss of their commercial influence, and of the consequent ruin of their trade.

Meanwhile the duke of Marlborough, in concert with his allies, pushed matters against the French, and defeated them, 1708, at Oudenarde, with great slaughter. Charles XII., of Sweden, being then in the heart of Germany with a large army, and his designs being unknown, the duke was sent by Anne to sound his intentions; but all the flattery and politeness of the ambassador could only extract from the eccentric Charles an assurance that he had a high respect for queen Anne, and should take no steps to the prejudice of the grand alliance. In the autumn of that year died prince George, the queen's consort, of asthma and dropsy, who had always been a favourite on account of his refusal to interfere in politics, and for his quiet performance of all the moral duties of his high station. He had always lived in harmony with the queen, who, during their whole union, and especially in his last illness, proved herself a pattern of conjugal truth and tenderness. In 1709 Marlborough was again successful against the French at Malplaquet, compelling marshal Villars to give up a long line of intrenchments without striking a blow. In conjunction with prince Eugene, the duke took Douai and other fortresses, 1710; and his last enterprise was the taking of Bouchain, 1711, which opened a way into the heart of France. On the duke's return from this campaign, he was accused of having taken a bribe of 6000*l.* a-year from a Jew, who had contracted to supply the army with bread; and the queen thought proper to dismiss him from all his employments. This suspension led to a change in general politics, and peace was made with the French, 1713, by the treaty of Utrecht; whereupon vast numbers of French protestants, who had been imprisoned for their opinions, were set free.

The whigs and tories were now more than ever in arms against each

other on the Union question, as well as on that of an unbroken hereditary succession to the crown ; the tories, on the latter point, evidently desiring, though they never openly averred it, that Anne's brother, afterwards known as the Pretender, should succeed her, in preference to a prince of the house of Hanover. The queen herself was known to lean to her brother's cause, but having been much affected by the violence of the factions, suddenly became ill, 1714, and fell into a lethargic insensibility ; and her distemper gained ground so fast, that her life was in one day from the attack despaired of. On the 30th of July she appeared to be somewhat better, and was enabled to rise : being supported across her room, she fixed her eyes upon a clock which stood there, and continued gazing at it, until one of her ladies asked her what she saw more than usual ? to which her majesty only answered by turning upon her a dying look. She was soon after seized with apoplexy, and never spoke to the period of her death, August 1, 1714. She died in the fifty-first year of her age, and was buried in Westminster-abbey.

As Anne never acted in political matters without consulting one or more persons, in whose judgment she placed a blind confidence, it is curious that females were usually her most influential counsellors. These, of course, were the mere tools of the two factions ; but with so much spirit did Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, on the part of the whigs, from 1702 to 1708, advocate and keep up the war against Louis XIV., and with so much skill did Mrs. Masham, on the side of the tories, carry on affairs from 1708, and bring about the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, which terminated the whig policy, that they appeared to be acting upon their own responsibility. From the surprising number of learned characters existing throughout this reign, it is usually called the Augustan Age of England ; not that the queen was a great patron of literature, but it was her singular fortune to have, even amongst her statesmen, minds of the highest cast, and polished by the most refined taste.

EVENTS.

UNION OF SCOTLAND WITH ENGLAND, 1707.—The prominent features of the treaty which effected this important measure, are, that the succession should be vested in the princess Sophia and her heirs ; that the united kingdom should be represented by one single parliament ; that all the subjects of Great Britain should enjoy a community of privileges ; that the laws concerning public right, policy, and civil government should be the same throughout the kingdom ; that the court of session and all other courts of judicature in Scotland should remain as then constituted by the laws of that kingdom ; that all heritable offices and jurisdictions should remain as formerly ; that the rights and privileges of the royal boroughs in Scotland should be preserved entire ; that Scotland should be represented by 16

peers, and 45 commoners ; that all peers of Scotland should be peers of Great Britain ; and that the Scottish crown, sceptre, and sword of state shall remain for ever in Scotland.

THE GREAT STORM.—A tremendous tempest occurred in the south of England, November 27, 1703, which a writer of the period thus describes : ' Horror and confusion seized upon all, whether on shore or at sea. No pen can describe it, no tongue can express it, no thought can conceive it, unless theirs who were in the extremity of it. To venture abroad was to rush into instant death ; and to stay within afforded no other prospect than that of being buried under the ruins of a falling habitation. Some, in their distraction, did the former ; others the latter, and in their own houses received their final doom.' The damage in the

city of London alone was computed at nearly two millions sterling; at Bristol it was about 200,000*l*. In the whole, it was supposed that the loss was greater than that produced by the great fire of London, 1666. In Little Wild-street chapel, Lincoln's-inn-fields, a sermon is annually preached on this day, in commemoration of the calamitous occurrence.

TRIAL OF SACHEVERELL, 1710.—Henry Sacheverell was son of a clergyman, and born at Marlborough. Placed at Magdalen college, Oxford, he took orders, and at length, by his polite manners and good conduct, became a prosperous tutor of his college; and his Latin poems show him to have been an elegant scholar. To him Addison inscribed his 'Farewel to the Muses,' calling him his 'dearest friend.' While rector of Cannock, Staffordshire, and lecturer of St. Saviour's, Southwark, he preached two sermons, the one at Derby, the other at St. Paul's 1709, reflecting on lord Godolphin the minister, under the name of Volpone, which drew upon him the resentment of parliament. His consequent trial began before the lords, February 27, and ended March 23, 1710; but after a most eloquent defence, he was simply prohibited from preaching for three years, and his sermons were ordered to be burned by the common hangman. The sentence was protested against by four-and-thirty peers. As the doctor passed to and from Westminster-hall upon the several days of his trial, he was attended by great multitudes of the lower classes, who ill-treated such as omitted to salute him by not taking off their hats, and crying out 'High Church, and Sacheverell!' The lenity of the sentence, which was in a great measure owing to the dread of popular resentment, his friends considered as a victory obtained over a whig faction; and they celebrated their triumph with bonfires and illuminations. So violent was the party spirit of the times, and so singularly were the

very mob tories, that this completely overturned the ministry. The queen saw with pleasure the propagation of sentiments which enforced the divine right of monarchs, and submissive obedience; and when his punishment was expired, Sacheverell was presented to the living of St. Andrew's, Holborn, and received with such enthusiasm, that of the first sermon which he preached there, and which he sold for £100, 40,000 copies were immediately bought. Though bishop Burnet (himself a low churchman) speaks of him very contemptuously, 'as one who forced himself to preferment by railing at dissenters and low churchmen,' Sacheverell received nothing beyond St. Andrew's through court-favour; and he died 1724.

ORIGIN OF QUEEN ANNE'S BOUNTY.

—The origin of First-fruits and Tenth's was in the time of papal influence in England, when they were imposed as a tax upon the clergy, to make up a large annual tribute to Rome. First-fruits consisted of one whole year's profits of every spiritual preferment and benefice, according to the valuation of benefices made by the pope's authority; and Tenth's were the tenth part of the annual profit of each benefice, according to the same valuation. Henry VIII., the common plunderer of every fund upon which he could lay his hands, seized this tax, made it a kind of prerogative or crown-revenue, and as such transmitted it to his successors. In this manner it came to Queen Anne, who, being touched with commiseration for the condition of the clergy (impoverished as they had become by the impropriations granted to lay-proprietors by Henry VIII.), gave it up into the hands of commissioners, to be applied thereafter to the augmentation of small livings; and the fund was thereupon called 'Queen Anne's Bounty.' This well-intended generosity left the rate of impost as it found it; that is, it enforced the clergy's payment of the tenths of their respective livings only on the value of such livings when the

law was originally made, to which moderate rate it had been reduced by former parliaments, and recorded in a book called 'Liber Regis,' on finding the payment on the increased value of livings an insupportable oppression. Lay impropiators, on the other hand, are bound by special acts to maintain the officiating clergy of the respective vicarages 'suitably, creditably, and honourably,' which acts alone constitute the several titles under which they hold their impropriations and lay tithes; and by the letter and spirit of these acts, they are compellable to pay such vicars at least double the amount they could possibly receive from any augmentation of Queen Anne's fund. Thus is wisely made a competent provision for the clergy who were anciently deprived; and whose representatives of the present day still render the same duties upon the very inadequate fund which this plunder of the Church has left them. The augmentation of small livings under the effect of Queen Anne's Bounty has certainly been a boon to one portion of the clergy, and it is happy that even such a small share of the booty has been recovered; but it has also necessarily had the effect of increasing the value of the advowsons of impropiators themselves, and thus (over and above their needful relief of the clergy) has operated to produce a double mischief. It has first done for the impropiators what they ought to have done for themselves; they are at once rewarded for their wrong-doing, and have the means given them, and an excuse for continuing it. Secondly, as a low standard of remuneration for the services of spiritual persons has become thus established, and unfortunately recognised to be right, it has come to pass that upwards of 8000 small vicars and curates are doing their duties upon an average income of £100 a-year, to their own great suffering, and the manifest injury of the religious interests of the community—since where the clergy have no worldly means,

their spiritual labours (in rural districts more especially) are almost nugatory. The Treasurer and other officers of the Fund are incorporated by the name of 'Governors of the Bounty of Queen Anne.'

THE WINTER OF 1709.—This was the severest winter on record. There had been remarkably cold seasons before; as that of 1067, when thousands of travellers in Germany were frozen to death; that of 1183, when the wine-casks burst in France and Spain, and the trees in Italy split with a vast noise by the action of the frost; that of 1179, when the snow was eight feet deep throughout Austria, and lay till Easter; that of 1286, when the Danube was frozen to the very bottom; that of 1281, wherein the snow in Austria actually buried multitudes of lofty houses; that of 1292, when one sheet of ice extended between Norway and Jutland, so that travellers passed with ease; that of 1323, when people passed on the ice from Denmark to Dantzic; that of 1408, when the sea between Norway and Denmark was frozen, and wolves, driven from their forests, crossed the ice into Jutland; that of 1434, when it snowed forty days in Germany without intermission; that of 1468, when wine in casks and bottles was every where throughout Europe frozen; that of 1622, when the Hellespont was one sheet of ice; that of 1658, when Charles X. of Sweden took his whole army, horse and foot, with the baggage, across the Little Belt, from Holstein to Denmark; that of 1684, when coaches drove along the Thames for weeks together. But none of these winters were comparable to the winter of 1709-10. It was emphatically called 'the cold winter.' All rivers and lakes in Europe were frozen, and even the seas to the distance of several miles from the shore. The frost is said to have penetrated three yards into the ground. Birds and wild beasts were strown dead upon the lands, and men perished by thousands in their houses. The more tender

shrubs and vegetables in England were killed, and wheat rose in price from two to four pounds a quarter. In the south of France, the olive plantations were almost entirely destroyed; nor have they yet really recovered that fatal disaster. The Adriatic was quite frozen over, as was the coast of the Mediterranean about Genoa; and the citron and orange-groves suffered extremely in the finest parts of Italy. Subsequent severe winters to that have been that of 1729, when the frost lasted from October till the next May, and the quantity of cattle and sheep that perished from the snow in Scotland was immense. That of 1740, next in severity to 'the cold winter,' when the snow lay 10 feet deep in Spain and Portugal, the Zuyder Zee was frozen over, all the lakes and most of the rivers of England the same; water thrown from any vessel, and warmed for that purpose, became ice as it fell to the ground; few could walk 100 yards in the open air, on some days, without the face being frost-bitten; in Bohemia and Moravia all the ponds were frozen to the bottom; domestic animals were frozen to death in their stables, as were the birds in the woods, and the game in the forests; 3000 persons are said to have died of cold in Sweden, and 80,000 head of horned cattle were frozen to death in Hungary; while in England, postilions died in their saddles, and coachmen on their boxes. That of 1744, when the snow in Portugal for weeks was above many of the houses; that of 1776, when wine froze in the cellars in France, Holland, and England, and extraordinary quantities of birds and fishes perished; that of 1795, when the republican armies of France overran Holland; and that of 1814, when a fair was held on the Thames, and printing-presses were set at work for weeks together on its ice.

SARDINIA ADDED TO SAVOY.—When Naples and Sicily had been taken from the Spaniards, 1707, by prince Eugene of Savoy, Sicily was made a part of the

duke of Savoy's dominions; Naples being claimed by the emperor of Germany. In 1714, however, the treaty of Rastadt arranged that Sicily should also be given up to Germany; and as an equivalent for its cession to Charles VI. of Germany by Victor, duke of Savoy, in that year, the island of Sardinia was given to the latter, and has ever since remained a part of the dominions of the house of Savoy, which was raised to regal rank, 1720.

INSURRECTION OF RAGOTSKI.—Ragotski, a Polish noble, being accused by the emperor of Germany of an attempt to revolutionise Hungary, declared himself protector of that country, and prince of Transylvania, 1703. He maintained his power until 1713, when the Austrians compelled him to retire; and he died near Constantinople, 1735. His memoirs of the revolutions of Hungary are highly interesting.

THE MAN WITH THE IRON MASK.—Soon after the death of cardinal Mazarin, the court of France ordered a young man of dignified mien to be guarded, first in one prison, and then in others, with peculiar strictness; and, in order to prevent his face being seen, he was compelled to wear a mask, composed principally of iron. The utmost deference was ordered to be paid to him by all concerned in his detention; but loaded muskets were constantly in the hands of those who watched him in his walks, and death was denounced against any one who should aid his escape. He eat off plate, and was sumptuously lodged and apparelled. At length he died in the Bastille, 1703, aged, according to his own account, 60, but according to that of the gaolers, 40. He never told who he was, though he often secretly attempted so to do, by writing on the walls and windows of his rooms. Rumour had all along been busy in alleging him to be the duke of Monmouth, and various other important characters presumed to have forfeited their lives to the laws of their country; but the late lord Dover, on searching the French ar-

chives, discovered the personage to be simply count Matthioli, a Mantuan senator, who, after secretly engaging his master, Ferdinand, duke of Mantua (on account of a bribe received from Louis XIV. 1677) to deliver up the town and fortress of Casal, then the key of Italy, to the French, broke his faith, on receiving larger payments from Spain and Austria. The abbé d'Estrades, Louis's ambassador at Venice, who had concerted the shameful measure with Matthioli, was the first to seize him at Turin; and the count was kept a prisoner from that moment until his death—a space of 26 years.

THE TREATY OF UTRECHT, 1713, which put an end to the long war with Louis XIV., and gave to England the important island of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay in North America, besides confirming to the same crown the possession of Gibraltar and Minorca.

THE PRAGMATIC SANCTION, 1713, was made by the emperor Charles VI.; who, having no sons, settled his dominions on his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, by that act of council. The word pragmatic is from the Greek *pragma* (business); and in civil law, a pragmatic sanction implies the answer of a sovereign, with consent of his council, to some college or community of persons, who or which may have consulted him in some case of their society. The like answer when given to an individual is called a *rescript*.

HERCULANEUM DISCOVERED.—The first attempt to unseal this city, accidentally discovered 1713, gave to view the interior of some extremely beautiful buildings. In one, the rooms were entirely coated with purple and white marble, edged with marble of black and gold; in another, panels of various-coloured marble enclosed paintings of peculiar lustre and accuracy. Among the paintings were a Prometheus chained to the rock, a large bird feeding on

his liver; and a combat of beasts, wherein a dying tiger has been pronounced the noblest performance of the kind extant. Among the statues in the niches (which all the best rooms have), was an extraordinarily beautiful one of Juno, in blue marble. Paintings also of Semele overjoyed at the sight of Jupiter, and of Polixena rejoicing at the death of Achilles, are masterpieces of art.—(*See Pompeii*, vol. iii.)

GIBRALTAR MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1704.—The Grecian method of accounting for the origin of the Gibraltar strait we have recorded. Gibraltar itself, by them called Calpe, or the urn, because of its advance into the sea, is a promontory of three miles long, and seven in circumference, and forms the key to the Mediterranean. Henry IV. of Castile was so delighted at its recovery from the Moors, 1462, by his general John de Guzman, duke of Medina Sidonia, after they had held it 748 years, that he added Gibraltar to his royal titles, and gave it for arms gules, a castle, with a key pendant to the gate, (alluding to its being the key to the Mediterranean), which device has been continued to the present day. The kings of Spain, after Ferdinand and Isabella, bestowed great privileges on Gibraltar, on account of its presenting the first point of attack from the Moors of Barbary; such as that it was declared to be a place of refuge for all malefactors, 'except traitors, and him who had taken another man's wife.' Little further is recorded of the place until 1704, when Sir George Rooke, the English admiral, who had been sent into the Mediterranean with a large fleet to assist Charles, archduke of Austria, in recovering the crown of Spain, finding nothing of importance to be done, called a council of war off Tetuan, and proposed the conquest of Gibraltar. On the 21st of July the fleet arrived in the bay; 1800 English and Dutch were landed on the isthmus, under the com-

mand of the Prince of Hesse Darmstadt; the governor was summoned to surrender; and, on his refusal, a cannonade was opened on the town by the ships under Admirals Byng and Vanderdussen. The governor, on being again summoned, thought it prudent to capitulate; and on the 24th the Prince of Hesse took possession of the fortress, after a loss on the side of the British of 60 killed and 216 wounded. Gibraltar has ever since continued in the hands of the English; not, however, without three attempts on the part of the Spanish to arrest it from them. The following have been the governors:—1704, Prince of Hesse; 1705, Major-gen. Ramos; 1706, Col. Elliott; 1711, Gen. Stanwix; 1713, Colonel Congreve; 1716, Col. Cotton; 1718, Major Bataillon; 1719, Major Hetherington; 1720, Col. Kane; 1721, Lord Portmore; 1722, Colonel Hargrave; 1728, Gen. Clayton; 1730, Gen. Sabine; 1739, Gen. Columbine, Gen. Clayton, and Gen. Hargrave; 1748, General Bland; 1751, Lord George Beauclerc; 1752, Col. Herbert; 1754, General Braddock; 1754, General Fowkes; 1756, Lord Tyrawley; 1757, Earl of Penmure; 1758, Lord Home; 1761, Col. Toovey; 1761, Gen. Parslow; 1762, Gen. Cornwallis; 1766, Gen. Irwine; 1767, Gen. Cornwallis; 1769, Gen. Boyd and Gen. Cornwallis; 1777, Gen. Elliot; 1787, General O'Hara; 1791, Sir Robert Boyd; 1794, Gen. Rainsford; 1795, Gen. O'Hara; 1802, Gen. Barnett and Duke of Kent; 1803, Sir T. Trigge; 1805, Gen. Fox; 1806, Gen. Drummond and Sir Hew Dalrymple; 1808, Gen. Drummond; 1809, Sir J. Cradock; 1810, Gen. Campbell; 1814, Gen. Smith and Sir G. Don; 1820, Earl of Chatham; 1825, Sir G. Don; 1831, Sir W. Houston; 1835, Sir Alex. Woodford. Notwithstanding the important service of Sir George Rooke, the whig ministers disregarded that gallant man, who died in retirement 1709, observing as

he made his will, 'that the little he should leave had been honestly gotten, had never cost a sailor a tear, nor the nation a farthing.' Gibraltar is probably the most perfect fortress in the world, the natural rock allowing room for excavating long galleries and guard-rooms, wherein the cannon are planted as on board ship, loopholes being bored for their muzzles towards the sea; and range above range of those deadly engines being pointed in all directions, so as to scour the sea beneath, and prevent an entrance, if requisite, from the Atlantic to the Mediterranean. There are now more than 1000 guns mounted. The streets of Gibraltar, which were formerly in a most deplorable state, are well paved, lighted, and cleansed; and extensive improvements are daily going on. Many of the narrow streets have been widened, and free ventilation is promoted by all possible means. The Andalusian atmosphere has ever been noted for its salubrity, though the climate is warm; and rocky as Gibraltar is, it is by no means barren of vegetation. Many fine trees are there growing; the olive, almond, orange, lemon, thrive prodigiously; and the vine and fig flourish in exuberance. Noble date-trees, the prickly pear, the aloe, geraniums of exceeding beauty, are all found on the mountain; fish and vegetables of the best kinds are in abundance. The chief administration lies in the governor, who is of course the commander-in-chief of the troops; and the settlement is treated as a garrison-town.

THE TITLE OF CZAR ABOLISHED, 1709, after the victory of Pultowa; when Peter declared Russia an empire, and styled himself 'emperor and autocrat (self, or unassisted ruler) of all the Russias.'

ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL, LONDON, completed by the son of Sir Christopher Wren, the illustrious founder of it, 1710. This noble structure occupies above two acres of ground, and cost a million and a half of public money;

and it is much to be lamented that, like Westminster-abbey, it should be desecrated by monuments that would not be tolerated even in heathen temples.

ENGLISH SOUTH SEA COMPANY INSTITUTED, 1710.—The payment of the sailors of the royal navy had been neglected during the long war with Louis XIV.; and promissory tickets being given to the men in lieu of money, they were constantly sold by the poor fellows to usurers, who discounted them at forty and fifty per cent., until they all fell into their hands, to the amount of nine-and-half millions. These unprovided debts of the nation induced Mr. Harley, chancellor of the exchequer, to offer the owners of them six per cent. per year, and allow them to form a trading company to the South Sea and the coast of America, to promote the fisheries and general commerce.

INTEREST ON MONEY in England limited to five per cent., 1714.

THE CAMELLIA JAPONICA PLANT, first brought into England from the Netherlands, 1706. This beautiful addition to the conservatory is a native of Japan and China; and if we regard its graceful mode of growth, the elegance of its dark glossy foliage, and the pleasing shape, colour, and texture of its crimson or red, rose or pink, blush or white flowers, it strikes us to be one of the most favoured of the *unfragrant* shrubs. The Camellia is a species of the tea-plant; and there is a very slight difference in the general character of the tea-producer and it.

CROSSING THE LINE.—The origin of the ceremony observed by ships in crossing the equator on their passage eastward, is involved in obscurity: the first authentic narrative of the shaving ordeal dates 1702; and as the practice is now fast falling into desuetude, the following account by a recent 'sufferer,' will be read with interest. 'One lovely evening, when our gallant vessel was calmly floating on the unruffled bosom of the deep, within the tropics, myself sitting at

the open port, gazing thoughtfully on the setting sun, I was suddenly startled from my meditations by the cry of 'A sail ahead! hallo! Neptune ahoy!' and, on gaining the deck, perceived a large tar-barrel flaming on the ocean, and gliding past our vessel; which I was given to understand was the barge of the venerable water-god, who had announced his intention of coming on board next morning, to superintend the shaving of such of his children as had not previously crossed the great boundary of his dominions. About nine next morning, accordingly, this august personage made his appearance on the quarterdeck, and advanced to seat himself on a gun-carriage, under a gorgeous canopy of various-coloured flags, and surrounded by innumerable streamers, which kept waving to and fro with every breeze. His dress, consisting of a buffalo's hide, with such other varieties as could be procured, added to an iron-crowned hoary-headed mask, rendered him a very grotesque figure. By his side was seated a gigantic white-robed mariner, intended to represent Amphitrite. The royal chariot, preceded by a band of music, and drawn by sixteen men, painted from head to foot in the most ludicrous fashion, led the van of the procession, and was followed by numerous constables, bearing their rods of office, all decorated in a singular manner. Next followed the important barber, with his train of attendants; and his oceanic majesty's household brought up the rear. After parading the quarterdeck with all due ceremony, the procession halted opposite the cuddy-door, (that is, the door of the great cabin on the upper deck,) where Neptune was welcomed by the officers, and accepted the offer of a glass of spirits; nor had his fair spouse any hesitation in swallowing a potent draught of the same. When all things were ready, the car was drawn into the lee waist, where was prepared a deep cistern, (composed of a tarred topsail, supported at the four

corners by corresponding stanchions, and filled to the brim with the salt water of the tropical ocean.) a covered throne for Neptune and his exquisite consort, a scaffolding for the barber and suite, and a narrow plank across the reservoir, on which were to be seated those destined to undergo the ceremony of 'shaving.' At this moment the beating of the drums, the sound of the horns, the shouts of the mariners, and the cry of 'Bring forth my sons!' indicated to those below on the gun-deck, that the business of the day was about to commence; whereon a band of the horrific constables came to lead me, blindfolded, and with a palpitating heart, to the place of execution. No sooner had I gained the summit of the companion-ladder, than a deluge of salt water, from innumerable buckets, was discharged unceremoniously into my face: and when I attempted to gasp for breath, an unceasing stream from the fire-engine was directed by some expert hand, right into my mouth. In this state, panting, and almost breathless, I rushed forwards with much exertion, dragging constables and attendants after me, till I gained the foot of the ladder which led to the plank crossing the cistern. This I ascended with some difficulty, amid the cheering of a merciless multitude, took my seat on the tottering plank, and awaited with anxious expectation the dreadful result of all this ceremony. I had not sat long before a rough brush (every hair of which seemed to be formed of a porcupine's quill) saluted my chin; then a sharp-toothed saw (intended to represent a razor) was passed over my cheeks; then a bucket of water was thrown into my face; then another dense stream from the fire-engine was directed into my mouth; and then the frail plank was withdrawn from under me, and I plunged headlong and breathless into the abyss below! This was not all. In the cistern was a shelf, and on this shelf a man (dressed in a bearskin, and creeping on all fours), whose duty it

was to hold the subject of their mirth for some time under the surface of the water. Struggling, as it were, for my existence, no sooner did I feel the horned clutches of the great bear, than I struck him such a blow on the head as caused him to let go his grasp; and, almost insensible, I scrambled up the sides of the cistern, and threw myself down on the deck below. Still no quarter was allowed me: I had yet to make my way through a deluge of water, showered on me from the fore-castle, the decks, the booms, and the tops, to the after-part of the vessel; which, had I not immediately accomplished, I verily believe I should have sunk exhausted under the ordeal. Notwithstanding all this roughing, however, I contrived, on the whole, to preserve my good humour; and I had no sooner recovered, and begun to look about me, than I seized a bucket, and was among the first to salute my hapless messmates who next made their appearance. After all the midshipmen had passed through the hands of the barber, the shaving of the seamen commenced. This was a more serious business; for the chins of many bled profusely, and their mouths and eyes were fearfully disfigured by the tarry brush of the barber, while torrents of their favourite element were showered on their hooded heads, without sympathy or restraint. In the mean time the shaving advanced with great rapidity; and, before twelve o'clock, the procession returned in all its pomp to the cuddy-door, where the captain's health, with that of all the legitimate sons of Neptune, was drunk with loud and continued cheers, and the sports of the morning concluded.'

ENGLAND UNDER THE STUARTS.—The rule of the first members of this unfortunate House was a continued struggle between privilege and prerogative. But it is observable, that, however jealous the Stuarts were of their rights as kings, they seem to have acted in mere self-defence, and with a full conviction that it was their duty

to maintain inviolable that authority which, during the most regular course of English government in former times, had been exercised without dispute or controversy. The Tudors were far more tyrannical than the Stuarts: and what was no error in Elizabeth, was regarded in the first Charles (though the Constitution continued unaltered) as an unpardonable aggression. The English had been distinguished for their apathy towards state-matters; but when the art of printing had enabled opinion to become active, the people began to concern themselves with the doings of their superiors; and, stimulated to inquiry as the public mind had been by the events of the Reformation, the progress therefrom to the overthrow of monarchy, and thence to the Revolution, was facile, and, without a prodigious share of tact on the part of the ruler, politically natural. The latter event was hailed by a large portion in the now enlightened nation, not so much because it insured civil and religious liberty, as that it established the popular power, in the great precedent of deposing one king and setting up another.—The commerce and riches of England had never, during any previous period, increased with so great rapidity as between the Restoration and Revolution; and the sun of science burst forth in meridian splendour, ushered into the world by the illus-

trious philosophers, Bacon, Newton, and Locke. The peaceful disposition of the first James, associated as it was with (whatever may have been advanced in derision of his pedantry) a highly cultivated mind,—proved beyond a doubt by his still-existing writings,—had contributed to place our nation in a respectable rank amongst the polished kingdoms of the continent; and after the Restoration, the court of St. James's became the centre of attraction to foreigners, through the easy and graceful demeanour of the sovereign. After the Revolution, polite literature was greatly patronized; and when the sterling productions of a Milton came to be estimated, the witty but indelicate poetry and other works of the Restoration were consigned to merited oblivion. In Anne's reign England places her Augustan Age. Architecture and the fine arts had gained, in the first Charles's reign, a stability which even the fanaticism of the Commonwealth was not able to overthrow. The mode of dress of both men and women underwent extraordinary changes during the dominion of the Stuarts; but the most remarkable variation was in the style of ornamenting men's heads, by changing the flowing hair of the first Charles's time for the immense peruke of the Restoration, which was continued, without the pointed beard, until the days of queen Anne.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER AHMED III.—On the deposition of his father, Mohammed IV., by the Janizaries, 1702, Ahmed was acknowledged sultan; and the most memorable transactions of his reign are connected with Charles XII. of Sweden. That devoted soldier, after losing the battle of Pultowa, 1709, took refuge at Bender, in the Turkish dominions, and was hospitably received by Ahmed, even to the presenting him with 16,000 ducats in ready money. Charles succeeded in kindling a war between the czar Peter and Ahmed;

and the result was highly favourable to the Turks, though not so in the hero's estimation. During several days, Peter was cut off, and placed in a most embarrassing situation on the banks of the Pruth, almost within grasp of the Turkish army; and though the unskilfulness of the Turkish commander, Baltigi Mohammed, let him escape from this difficulty, he was soon after obliged to resign to the Turks the important town of Azov. Ahmed was also fortunate in a war with the Venetians, who were compelled to quit the Morea and

hammedan jealousy had contemplated their oppression, they suddenly relinquished the apostolical character, and became in all respects militant, 1695, under their last guru, or chief, Govind. Govind, wisely considering that all his subjects should be soldiers, abolished the system of castes, changed the title of the sect from Sikh (*theist*) to Singh (*lion*), and made war upon the emperor of Delhi, Bahader Shah, 1707. In this contest he was taken prisoner, 1710, though after a time liberated by Bahader; and he then greatly consolidated the Sikh power by his wise regulations. 'Under me,' he recorded in a history of his wars, 'the bows of the Singhs have proved triumphant over the sabres of the Moslims, and the precepts of the Granth (the Sikh sacred book) over the cowardly doctrines of the Vedas and Shastras.' This able leader was assassinated by a Petan soldier, 1711, not without a suspicion of the emperor himself being concerned in his death; and the Sikhs thereon nominated one Banda their leader. Banda-Singh also was captured by the emperor's forces, and put to death, together with all his family, at Delhi; and upon the arrival of the news of this massacre among his followers, they swore eternal vengeance against the Mohammedans, and have ever since manifested an implacable hatred towards them. From this period, until Nadir Shah's conquest of Delhi, 1740, the Sikhs had full possession of the province of Lahore.

SCOTLAND UNDER ANNE. — The new parliament consequent upon Anne's accession met at Edinburgh, 1703, with the duke of Queensberry as president; and its first acts were the sanction of presbytery, and the depriving any successor of queen Anne of the power of making peace or war for Scotland. An overture for a toleration act was defeated; and when the earl of Marchmont proposed settling the succession upon the house of Hanover, he was threatened with imprisonment in the

castle. The queen soon dissolved so unfriendly a body, and called a new assembly, which began by passing an act 'of security,' to the effect that 'unless a satisfactory settlement of the rights, liberties, and independence of Scotland should be obtained in the course of the present reign, the parliament should, on the queen's death, meet and name a successor, different from the person who succeeded to the English throne.' The English parliament expressed their indignation at this proceeding, by declaring the Scots aliens in England; the importation of Scottish cattle was prohibited; and the queen was requested to put the northern provinces into a state of sufficient defence against any attack from Scotland. In consequence of these violent measures, the contentions between the two nations rapidly increased; English ships of war were actually equipped and sent out against the Scottish trade; and a captain Green, of an English East India ship, driven into the firth of Forth, having been accused of murdering captain Drummond and the crew of a Scottish vessel, was tried, condemned, and instantly executed. The queen, to prevent further mischief, appointed hereupon commissioners, Scottish and English, to meet at Whitehall, the duke of Queensberry at the head of the former, and Cooper, lord keeper, of the other, for the settlement of grievances; and the result was a treaty for an act of National Union.

When, however, the measure was opened to the Scottish parliament, Oct. 1706, a most violent opposition began. The consequences were represented as ruinous; tumults commenced in the capital and country; sir Patrick Johnston, provost of Edinburgh, was besieged in his own house, and would have been torn in pieces, had not the guard dispersed the multitude; and Queensberry himself was constantly saluted with the curses and imprecations of the people as he passed along,—his guards pelted, and his attendants wounded with stones

as they sat by him in his coach. A copy of the treaty was publicly burned at Dumfries; the convention of the royal burghs and the commission of the general assembly petitioned parliament against it; and every succeeding day increased the universal outcry against a measure, which was regarded as about to put an end to the national existence of Scotland. The ministry, however, acted with vigour, notwithstanding so strong a display of dislike. They magnified the advantages that would accrue to the trade of the nation; they held up to notice the exclusion of a popish pretender; they brought over the earls of Roxburghe and Marchmont, with the whole of their adherents, partly by promises, partly by corruption; they disarmed the resentment of the clergy, by making the presbyterian form of church government a fundamental article of the treaty; and they soothed the African company with the hope of indemnification. Queensberry's hands were ever open, and his table sumptuously spread for those whom he had gained, or was desirous of gaining; and the able Daniel Defoe wrote pamphlets in the president's support. Meanwhile the parliament proceeded to discuss the different clauses of the union act in their order; but no sooner had the first article, after a stormy debate of two days, been carried, than petitions and remonstrances poured in from all quarters to the house; the Cameronians, rising in the west, took possession of Glasgow, seized the arms and ammunition, threw open the prison-doors, and drove the magistrates from the town; and several thousands were in arms under two artisans, Finlay and Montgomery, who threatened to march to Edinburgh, and disperse a guilty and corrupt parliament. That body, however, acted with a promptitude and energy which wholly frustrated a design that had been some time planning by Hamilton, Athol, Drummond, Errol, and other peers, to bring over the

son of the exiled James VII., and place him on the Scottish throne. Colonel Campbell thereupon, with only 220 dragoons, put to flight the insurgents of Glasgow; the artisan generals were seized and brought to Edinburgh; and in spite of tory and Jacobite hostility, the treaty of union was finally carried, and the lord high commissioner touching the act with the sceptre of the Scots' kings, it became a law, Jan. 16, 1707. It was on hearing of this event that prince James (the old Pretender) sent his ambassador, one Hooke, privately into Scotland, with powers from himself and the French king to negotiate with those chiefs whose minds were still inflamed by their failure in the affair of the Union. Accordingly the Drummonds, the Hays, the Keiths, lord Stormont, and many of the Murrays, with all the distinguished chiefs in the north-east counties, and the Cameronians in the west, engaged to muster 5000 cavalry, and 20,000 infantry, on condition that the French king should give them a monthly subsidy in money, and other requisite supplies. In consequence of this engagement, Hooke returned to France, and reported his success: and immediately a squadron, consisting of five sail of the line, 21 frigates, and two transports, having the Pretender and some land forces on board, sailed from Dunkirk. For this hostile attack the government of Britain was totally unprepared; the strength of the army was on the continent; there were not more than 3000 troops in Scotland; the Jacobites became bold; the friends of government were alarmed; the English fleet could scarcely be got ready; the banks were in danger of sudden bankruptcy, from the demand on them for specie; and the chiefs in the north began to prepare their arms and vassals. The French fleet, however, retarded by stormy weather, did not arrive in the firth of Forth till the 22d of March, which gave the English time to prepare; and whilst they were

sending up a vessel to give notice of their arrival, the English fleet, under sir George Byng, suddenly appeared. The French immediately fled northward, pursued by the English; the Pretender earnestly solicited to be put on shore, with his attendants only, but the French admiral Forbin would not listen to him; and being closely pursued, he was obliged to steer back to Dunkirk, where he arrived on the 17th of April, having lost the Salisbury, which fell into the hands of the English. After this unsuccessful attempt, the duke of Hamilton and the most forward of the Jacobite nobles and gentlemen were seized, put in confinement in London, and threatened with trial and punishment. They afterwards however obtained their liberty, on condition that they would influence the Scottish elections in favour of lord Wharton and the tory interest, against Godolphin, Marlborough, and the leaders of the whigs. Queensberry having been created duke of Dover, the first British parliament met Oct. 23, 1707, and appointed him secretary of state for Scotland; and he, conducting affairs till his death, was succeeded by St. John, one of Anne's most regarded ministers. St. John, after the continental war had terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, in order to soothe the Jacobite party, obtained promotion for Hamilton and his friends; and he conciliated both presbyterians and episcopalians; the former by giving power to Argyle, and the latter by an act of toleration. The same functionary's subsequent resolution, however, to extend the malt-tax over Scotland, in contradiction to its right of exemption, occasioned a serious alarm; and he had just been superseded by the earl of Marr, when news was received of the decease of queen Anne, 1714.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XIV. (CONCLUDED).—Upon the application of our James II. 1689, Louis granted the exiled monarch a fleet to convey his troops against the Orange

party in Ireland; and on taking leave of him, jocosely said, 'The best wish I can bestow upon you, my brother, is that I may not see your face again.' He, however, received the unfortunate king most generously, after his defeat at the Boyne, 1690; and supported him with a pension until his decease. The league of Augsburg made against France by the duke of Savoy, the prince of Orange, and the elector of Bavaria, 1688, had again involved Louis in war; and England, Germany, and Spain declaring against France, the flame spread throughout Europe. The duke of Luxemburg defeated the allies at Fleurus, 1690; and De Tourville beat the English and Dutch fleets in the channel; but the latter was defeated at La Hogue, 1692, by the English. At length the duke of Savoy being beaten by Catenat at Marsala, made a treaty with the French, 1696, which was followed by the general peace of Ryswick, 1697. By the death of Charles II. of Spain, a new war broke out, 1701, on account of the succession to that throne (*See Philip V.*); and in this contest the English and Dutch declared for the emperor against Louis, and the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene distinguished themselves by the most glorious and astonishing success. But when Marlborough had thoroughly humbled France, queen Anne, by the advice of her new ministry, accepted Louis's proposals, and taking the command from her victorious general, peace was signed at Utrecht, 1713. At length the health of Louis began to decline; and after a weakly existence of two years, he died, aged 77, 1715. The character of this king has ever been represented according to the prejudices, and those strong ones, of historians; but amid all the flattery and abuse lavished upon his memory, it is fair to say that he possessed extraordinary talents for rule, and was regarded throughout his

long reign as the most important sovereign in Europe. His carriage was most princely and dignified, and his manners were remarkably urbane. He was active, intelligent, and regular in business; quick in discovering the abilities of others, and an able administrator himself; and he was endowed with a constant equanimity in adversity as well as in prosperity. A kind master, he was not prone to change his servants capriciously, was not harsh in rebuking them, and was ever ready to encourage merit, and to reward zeal for his service. In proof of his habitual politeness, he never passed through any apartment of his palace at Versailles, or through its gardens, without taking off his hat even to his domestic servants, male or female, however humble in station. The revocation of the edict of Nantes, and his intemperate conduct to the pope, are the acts which have naturally provoked the greatest hostility to his memory. But it is well known that he hated the protestants, not on account of their faith, but as being rebellious subjects, and as that portion of his people which would not conform to his 'system of uniformity,' the basis on

which, in his notion, kingly power could alone well stand; while the papal power was too much regarded by other states, to allow the carrying out of his plan to render France the leading nation of Europe. As a leading actor in the great drama of life, no character has been better 'played to' than that of Louis 'le grand monarque.' He had at the head of his armies Turenne, Condé, Luxembourg, Catinat, Créquy, Vendôme and Villars; his naval captains were Du Quésne, Tourville, and Du Guay Trouin; for ministers he had Colbert, Louvois, and Torcy; Bossuet, Bourdaloue, and Massillon instructed him in religious duties; in his parliaments were heard Molé, Lamoignon, Talon, d'Aguesseau; Vauban built him fortresses; Mansard and Perrault erected him palaces; Pujet, Girardon, Le Poussin, Le Sueur, and Le Brun embellished his galleries; Le Nautre designed his gardens; Racine, Corneille, Molière, Quinault, Lafontaine, La Bruyère, Boileau, addressed themselves to his imagination; and he had for the tutors of his children, Montausier, Fénelon, Huet, Fléchier, and De Fleury, a perfect galaxy of mind and talent.

EMINENT PERSONS.

FRANCIS EUGENE OF SAVOY (1663—1736), commonly called 'Prince Eugene,' was the grandson of Charles Emanuel, duke of Savoy, and assumed the title of Abbé de Carignan when young at Paris, his birthplace, as he then purposed entering the church. On the death of his father, however, being neglected by the French court, he became a soldier in the imperial service, and in 1691 headed a German force, which beat the French in Piedmont. In 1697 he defeated the Turks with great slaughter at Zenta; and, having fought on that occasion contrary to orders, his fortunate disobedience was rewarded by a written licence from the emperor to act thenceforth according to his own judgment. In the war

concerning the Spanish succession, he commanded in Italy against marshal Catinat, who being unsuccessful, was superseded by Villeroy, whom prince Eugene took prisoner at Cremona. Eugene was now made president of the council of war at Vienna; and military affairs were placed entirely under his direction by the emperor. In the grand contest carried on by Louis XIV. against Germany, England, and other allied powers, Eugene took a distinguished part; and in conjunction with the British general, the duke of Marlborough, gained some of the most decisive and splendid victories over the French, which had been achieved since the days of Crecy and Agincourt. The battle of Blenheim, 1704, of Oudenarde

1708, of Malplaquet, 1709, covered with military glory the combined chiefs, and abased the pride of Louis. The change of politics at the English court subsequently checked the operations of the allies; and prince Eugene, who made a visit to this country (when the queen presented him with a sword worth 5000*l.*), found himself unable to prevail on Queen Anne's tory ministry to continue the war. On his return to the continent, he was obliged, in spite of his most strenuous exertions, to commence a negotiation, which led to the treaty of Rastadt, 1714, and to a subsequent pacification. Eugene was not long unemployed; for, a war breaking out between the emperor and the grand seignior, he took the command of a powerful army, passed the Danube, and defeated the Turks at Peterwaradin, 1716. In the next year he captured Belgrade; and the peace of Passarowitz, 1718, was the consequence. From this period he did little active service, devoting his fortune to the cultivation of the arts, and forming a fine collection of engravings. He was found dead in his bed, of apoplexy, being then in his 74th year, 1786. This eminent person always carried about with him a pocket edition of the '*De Imitatione*' of Thomas à Kempis; observing, 'that the good Christian necessarily makes the best soldier.'

JOHN CHURCHILL (1650—1722), son of Sir Winston, a loyal cavalier under the first Charles, was born at Ashe, Devon; and without any especial education, was made an ensign in the guards at sixteen, and went to Tangier against the Moors. He became, on his return, a favourite with Monmouth, with whom he served at the siege of Nimeguen; and so much did he distinguish himself, that Turenne (then in alliance with the English) could not help praising the conduct of 'the handsome young Englishman,' as he styled him, which Louis XIV. also did at the subsequent reduction of Maestricht. Being made master of the robes to the duke

of York, young Churchill accompanied that prince to the Netherlands, and then to Scotland; on his return from which latter country he was shipwrecked (with the duke's fleet), near the Humber, and though 120 persons lost their lives, he escaped. He about this time married Miss Sarah Jennings, an attendant on the princess Anne, afterwards queen of England; was in 1682 created baron Exmouth; on the death of Charles II. went as ambassador to France; and in 1685 was made baron Churchill of England. On the invasion of Monmouth, he was sent against his old patron, and in a little time repressed his rebellion, and took him prisoner; a service which obtained him the signal favour of James II. When, however, the prince of Orange landed, Churchill went over to his side, but without taking with him a single soldier under his command; and he was created earl of Marlborough by William. In 1689 he was at the battle of Walcourt, and laid the foundation of that military fame which was soon to astonish the continent. In Ireland he reduced Cork for William; but in the midst of his popularity his offices were taken from him, and his person confined in the Tower; a violent measure, which is attributed to his partial attachment to the interests of the princess Anne. The king, who knew his merits, soon restored him to favour, made him commander-in-chief of the troops sent over to Holland, and on his death-bed recommended him to the princess Anne, 'as the fittest person to protect the liberties of Europe.' Confirmed in his appointments by queen Anne, Marlborough, after having prevailed on the ministry to declare war against Spain, opened the campaign, 1702, by reducing the garrisons of Venlo, Ruremond, and Liege, which latter he took, sword in hand; and returning immediately after to England, he was created duke of Marlborough, with a pension of 5000*l.* In the next campaign he defeated the allies at Schellenberg, and after-

wards at Höchstet, where Tallard, the French general, was taken prisoner; and he returned to England, bringing with him, as trophies of his conquests, 121 standards and 179 colours, together with the captive general, and twenty-six officers of high distinction. On this occasion he received the thanks of parliament; and the queen settled on him the manor of Woodstock. The campaign of 1705 was equally successful; and in 1706, having, after exposing himself to great personal danger, won the battle of Ramillies, the towns of Louvaine, Brussels, Antwerp, and Ostend fell to him as fruits of his victory. For this last success, the queen made his titles hereditary in the male and female lines of his family; Blenheim-house was built for his residence; and 5000*l.* additional per year, from the post-office, was annexed to his title. The year 1707 was barren in military incidents; but Marlborough the next year pushed his conquests so rapidly, that the French in 1709 made proposals for a general peace. This was a manœuvre to disconcert the plans of the English and Dutch; but Marlborough, great also as a negotiator, defeated the plans of the enemy, and the French again appeared in the field, headed by Villars, an officer of whom Louis XIV. boastingly said, 'he had never been beaten.' Villars, however, was defeated at Malplaquet, Tournay was taken, and the duke returned to London to receive new congratulations. Marlborough, however, now felt the secret machinations of his enemies; and though empowered to negotiate at Gertruydenberg, the queen was alienated from him, and yielding to the influence of a new favourite, Mrs. Masham, she withdrew her confidence from the duchess, a woman of strong masculine powers of mind, who had lately been as much and arbitrarily the president of councils at home, as her husband had been director of those abroad. But though his family were removed, and his friends

discarded, Marlborough remained at the head of the army, and displayed against Villars his superior manœuvres of generalship. On his return to England, though apparently well received by the queen, he was dismissed from his employments; and in parliament was charged with ambitiously protracting the war, and of employing the public money to private purposes. The duke, yielding to the acrimonious language of faction, retired in voluntary banishment, 1712, to Ostend, and remained for nearly two years on the continent. He returned after the queen's death, and became a favourite with George I., who consulted him with confidence, and by his advice took those measures which crushed the rebellion of 1715. He died, aged 72, 1722; and his remains were interred with the greatest solemnity in Westminster-abbey.

WILHELM, BARON VON LEIBNITZ (1646—1716), was born at Leipsic, where his father was professor of ethics, and studied there and at Jena. When refused the degree of doctor-in-law, because he spoke with disrespect of the principles of Aristotle, he repaired to Altorf, where a thesis insured him both the applauses of the learned, and the offer of a professor's chair. The latter he declined, and going to Nuremberg, entered into the service of the elector of Mentz; and in 1673 he came to London, and there received hints of Newton's recent invention of Fluxions. After holding office at Brunswick and Hanover, he became president of the Berlin academy, and in 1711 aulic counsellor to the emperor, in whose capital, Vienna, he died, aged 70, 1716. Leibnitz, though worthy the title of philosopher, was too much a man of systems. At one time he laboured to invent an universal language, like bishop Wilkins, whereby all nations might be enabled to converse together; and 13 years of his life were wasted on this truly quixotic design. He in like manner, by a hint from the princess, after-

wards queen, Caroline, entered into a lengthened controversy with Dr. Clarke on the reality of space. He was in temper singularly irritable, and in character extremely avaricious; and at his decease, such a quantity of money was found in his house, hoarded in sacks, that the silly wife of his nephew, who inherited his property, died with excessive joy at the sight of so unexpected a sum. Leibnitz invented the Calculus Differentialis after his visit to England; and this led to a violent dispute between the respective disciples of that philosopher and Newton, concerning the original inventor of Fluxions. It is now settled in favour of Newton; but Leibnitz is presumed not to have been a plagiarist. The coincidence was curious; but it has more than once happened, as we have elsewhere observed, that some very important discovery in philosophy has been made at the same moment between more than two individuals residing apart from each other. Leibnitz took up theology also; and wrote to confute both sceptics who believed too little, and papists who believed too much. His doctrine of Optimism has been attacked by Voltaire, in his 'Candide,' with that writer's usual ingenuity.

ALEXANDER POPE (1688—1744), the son of a hatter, was born in the Strand, London, and acquired some acquaintance with the Greek and Latin from a Romish priest named Taverner. So strong was his taste for painting, that he once thought of adopting that art as a profession; but at length devoting himself to literature (being of feeble constitution), his 'Essay on Criticism' appeared 1708; and in this incomparable poetical performance, though not yet 20 years old, he evinced all the genius and judgment of mature reflection. Its fame, however, was surpassed by 'The Rape of the Lock,' 1712; the subject being founded on Lord Petre's having cut a lock of Mrs. Fermor's hair; and he had the happiness, by the delicate effusions

of his muse, to effect a reconciliation between the offended parties. "The 'Temple of Fame' next appeared; and in 1718 he published proposals for a translation of Homer's *Iliad*; for which he obtained 6000*l.* from subscribers, and 1200*l.* from the bookseller Lintot for the copyright. Thus raised to independence, he purchased a villa at Twickenham, to which he removed his father and mother, 1715. An edition of Shakspeare, a translation of the *Odyssey*, and his 'Dunciad,' occupied his time well, 1727; the last-named, a poem, which owed its origin to the illiberal remarks to which the poet had been exposed by the scribblers of the day, Colley Cibber, the poet laureat, being one of its chief heroes. At the solicitation of lord Bolingbroke, he turned his thoughts to ethics, and produced his 'Essay on Man,' 1729, which, strange to say, proved the author, notwithstanding his affectation of being a Romanist in religion, an undisguised deist, and ignorant of the system which he was advancing. He died of dropsy, a bachelor, aged 56, 1744. Pope was in person very small and thin, and somewhat deformed. He was irritable in temper, and capricious in friendship, and therefore unworthy of the sacred title of friend. He was also vain; and one of his greatest weaknesses was a disposition to artifice, in order to acquire reputation and applause—which is justly deemed indicative of littleness of mind. But as a poet, he has never been even equalled for smoothness of numbers, and never been surpassed in splendour of diction, and the truly vatic art of vivifying and adorning every subject that he touched. Some of Pope's paintings are still to be seen at lord Mansfield's, Caen Wood.

NICHOLAS ROWE (1673—1718), born at Little Beckford, Beds, was educated at Westminster-school, and then entered at the Inner Temple. Though his abilities might have raised him to eminence in the law, he preferred literature, and at the age of 25 produced his first tragedy, 'The Am-

bitious Stepmother,' which was received with universal applause. 'Tamerlane,' 'The Fair Penitent,' 'Jane Shore,' succeeded with equal approbation; but the poet was by no means successful in comedy. His fame occasioned the duke of Queensberry to make him his public secretary; and on the Hanoverian succession, he was appointed poet laureat, and a surveyor of customs. Almost his last work was a very masterly poetical translation of the *Pharsalia*; and he died, aged 45, 1718. 'Jane Shore' is Rowe's best dramatic production, the pathetic, rather than the terrible, being his forte. Eloquence and sentiment, as in the French school, supply the place of nice discrimination of character, and a skilful development of the passions, in all his dramas.

WILLIAM CONGREVE (1670—1729), born at Bardsey Grange, near Leeds, of an ancient family, was educated at Trinity college, Dublin. Entering at the Middle Temple, he preferred poetry to law; and on producing a comedy called 'The Old Bachelor,' lord Halifax, without solicitation, made him a commissioner for licensing hackney-coaches, soon after gave him a place in the pipe-office, and finally conferred on him a very lucrative place in the customs. After seeing his comedy of 'Love for Love' extremely well received, he essayed tragedy; and 'The Mourning Bride' was the result, 1679, and was equally popular. Having accumulated an independence, he at length assumed the man of fashion; and Voltaire was disgusted, on visiting him, to hear him say 'he wished to be regarded as a gentleman, not as an author.' 'I should never, certainly, have cared to see you,' replied the French wit, 'had I known that before.' He died, aged 59, 1729, and was buried in Westminster-abbey, leaving the bulk of his fortune, not to his poor relations, who were many, but to Henrietta, duchess of Marlborough, who had entertained a great regard for him. Congreve stands high as a writer of comedy, not for his charac-

ters of every-day life, but for his portraits of the fine, and often worthless ladies and gentlemen of the second Charles's court; but all his productions have a pruriency, which Jeremy Collier with good reason reprehended. His 'Love for Love,' is his best comedy: 'The Mourning Bride,' though abounding in fine passages, is on the whole an unnatural, and inflated effort of his muse.

JOHN PHILIPS (1676—1708), born at Bampton, Oxon, was educated at Winchester-school, and Christ-church, Oxford; at which latter place he produced his poem, 'The Splendid Shilling,' in which the sonorous cadence of the blank verse of Milton is adapted to familiar and ludicrous topics. He also wrote 'Blenheim,' a poem, in celebration of the Duke of Marlborough's victory; but his principal work is his 'Cider,' in imitation of the Georgics. He died of consumption, aged 32, 1708.

JOHN GAY (1688—1732) was born at Barnstable, and after an education there, apprenticed to a silk-mercator in London. He showed, however, such a dislike to trade, that, after a few years of negligent attendance, his indentures were cancelled by agreement, and he devoted himself henceforward to literature. He very early made acquaintance with Pope, and remained in friendship with that fine poet through life. Becoming secretary to Anne, duchess of Monmouth, he published his 'Trivia, or the Art of walking the Streets of London;' but it was his 'Shepherd's Week,' 1714, a caricature of Ambrose Philips's system of pastoral, which first attracted considerable attention. On reading that, lord Bolingbroke and the Tories in power appointed him secretary to the earl of Clarendon, in his embassy to the court of Hanover; but the death of queen Anne threw a cloud upon his rising prospects. His main source of support now became his pen; and when his celebrated 'Fables,' had obtained him no better reward than an offer of the honorary post of gentleman-

usher to the young princess Louisa, he declined the office as an indignity, and under this sense of disappointment, wrote his 'Beggars Opera,' 1727. Its ostensible purpose was to ridicule the Italian opera; but the poet's real object was to strip off the gilding by which selfishness and depravity in the higher grades are concealed from the view, not only of the world at large, but of the offending parties themselves; and though the moral tendency of the production has been impugned, it was clearly never Gay's object to encourage the vices of one rank, because they took their rise in sources similar to those which produce the vices of another. The opera not only had a run of 63 successive nights to overflowing audiences at the Lincoln's-inn theatre, but transformed Miss Fenton, who represented the heroine, into the duchess of Bolton; and it so offended the party then in power, that the lord chamberlain stopped the performance of a second part of it, entitled 'Polly.' This resentment, however, rather served the author than otherwise; as it induced his friends, and the party in opposition, to come forward on its publication with so handsome a subscription, that his profits amounted to 1200*l.*, whereas the Beggars Opera had gained him only 400*l.* A further benefit accrued in the patronage of the duke and duchess of Queensberry, who took him into their house, and condescended to manage his pecuniary concerns. He was soon after seized with hypochondriasis, attributed to disappointment, but which probably originated in habitual indolence, and a constitutional tendency to colic; and, being seized with inflammation of the bowels, he died 1782, aged 44. The private character of Gay was highly amiable; and he went to his grave really lamented as a mild, inoffensive, and sincere friend, by Swift, Arbuthnot, Pope, and other literary men. As a poet, he simply ranks amongst the facile narrators and painters of manners; though as respects his ballads,

there are few things of the sort that approach them in feeling and expression.

MATTHEW PRIOR (1664 — 1721) was son of a joiner, and born in London. On the death of his father, his uncle, a vintner, sent him to Westminster-school; where he imbibed a strong taste for classical literature, and where, attracting the notice of lord Dorset, that nobleman sent him at his own cost to St. John's college, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. In 1686 he joined his friend Montague, afterwards lord Halifax, in ridiculing the 'Hind and Panther' of Dryden, in the story of the Country and City Mouse; and at the Revolution he was introduced by lord Dorset to king William, and employed about the court. In 1690 he was secretary to the plenipotentiaries at the Hague; and the king, sensible of his merits, kept him about his person, as gentleman of his bed-chamber. After acting as secretary at Ryswick, 1697, principal secretary of state in Ireland, and secretary to the embassy in France, he was in 1700 one of the lords commissioners of trade and plantations; and obtaining a seat for East Grinstead, he voted for the impeachment of the lords who had advised the partition treaty. Though he celebrated the battle of Blenheim, yet he was an advocate for peace; and in 1711 he was sent by Anne to France as ambassador plenipotentiary. He continued in that character even after the accession of George I.; but being at last accused of misconduct by the parliament, and for a while imprisoned, he returned to private life, and being without any other provision than his fellowship, again applied assiduously to poetry. He died at the seat of his patron, the earl of Oxford, aged 57, 1721. As a poet, Prior, like Gay, is alone admirable for liveliness and facility of narration, and for 'easy jingle,' as Cowper describes it; and many of his productions partake of a coarseness which, notwithstanding the best society, adhered to him. His 'Solo-

mon' is his most laboured work ; but though correct, harmonious, and highly imaginative, it makes little impression on the feelings.

THOMAS PARNELL (1679—1717) was son of one of Charles's cavaliers, who, on the success of the parliament, retired to Dublin, where Thomas was born. He was educated at Trinity college, and taking orders in 1705, was presented to the archdeaconry of Clogher. He came to England every year, and became connected with Addison, Congreve, Steele, and other whigs in power ; but towards the latter part of queen Anne's reign, when the tories became triumphant, he deserted his former friends, and linked himself with Swift, Pope, Gay, and Arbuthnot. After writing several excellent papers in the *Spectator* and *Guardian*, in the form of visions, he obtained, through Swift's recommendation, both a prebend, and the valuable living of Finglass. On the death of his wife in 1712, to whom he was tenderly attached, he applied to wine for consolation, and contracted habits of intemperance, which terminated his life at the age of 38, 1717. His poems, of which 'The Hermit' is most popular, are highly moral and elegant ; and though without fire, they are facile, lively, and harmonious.

AMBROSE PHILIPS (1671—1749) was of a wealthy family, and after an education at St. John's college, Cambridge, where he distinguished himself by some pastorals, became a justice of peace, and in 1717 a lottery commissioner. Pope having satirized his pastorals, he stuck up a rod at Button's coffee-house, then the place of resort of wits and literary men, and threatened to chastise his antagonist wherever he saw him, though we never hear if he were enabled to carry his resolve into effect. He was in 1734 registrar of Dublin prerogative court, and he sat in the parliament of Ireland for Armagh ; and died in England, aged 78, 1749. The three tragedies he wrote, 'The Distressed Mother,' 'The Briton,' and

'Humphrey duke of Gloucester,' deserve more notice than they have received ; but for their want of arrangement for effect, they are wholly unfit for the stage.

JONATHAN SWIFT (1667—1745), of a respectable but reduced English family, was a posthumous child, and born at Kilkenny, in Ireland. He completed his education at Trinity college, Dublin ; but applying more to history and poetry than to academical learning, he was refused his first degree, and at last took it 'speciali gratiâ,' in terms of reproach. This aroused him ; and for the next seven years of his life he regularly studied eight hours a day. Coming to England, 1688, he was introduced to sir William Temple, who had married a relation of his mother ; and in his family he continued two years, and had frequent opportunities of seeing king William, who once offered to make him a captain of horse. Swift's thoughts, however, were bent to the church ; and having obtained an eundem M.A. degree at Oxford, he was ordained, and presented to a stall in Ireland. On his friend Temple's death, he inherited a legacy from him, and the right of his posthumous works, which he dedicated to the king, and received, after a while, the livings of Laracor and Rathbeggin. At Laracor he was first visited by the celebrated 'Stella,' daughter of W. Johnson, steward to sir William Temple, who inherited from him, for the services of her father, a legacy of £1000. This lady, whom Swift had seen at the house of his former patron, came to Ireland at his invitation ; and as she was but 18, she was accompanied by Mrs. Dingle, 15 years older. These two ladies lived with Swift on terms of intimacy, but without scandal ; in his absence they resided at the parsonage ; but on his return, they removed to their lodgings, and never met but in the company of a third party. In 1701 Swift took his doctor's degree, and soon after was consulted by Harley, the minister, on political affairs ; but he obtained no-

thing of preferment till 1713, when he was made dean of St. Patrick's. A bishopric had been intended for him by the queen; but on the representation of Sharp, who declared him to be a man whose Christianity was questionable, his name was passed by. Soon after, he returned to England, to reconcile Harley and St. John, whose enmity threatened destruction to the ministry; but in vain. After the death of Anne, he had little connexion with the leading men of England; but though unpopular in Ireland, his patriotism restored him to public favour. When Wood obtained a patent to coin £180,000 in copper for Ireland, which, in enriching the projector, would have ruined the people, the dean opposed the plan, and, by the publication of his 'Drapier's Letters,' prevailed upon the people to reject the money. Thus successful, he became the oracle of Ireland; and nothing was adopted there without previously knowing the sentiments of the dean. The last period of his life was spent in retirement. In 1736 he lost his memory; and as his temper was naturally irascible, he grew violent, so that few of his friends visited him. In 1741 his infirmities were such, that he was unfit for conversation; and the next year he became delirious, and once sank into such insensibility, that for a whole year he never spoke. After short intervals of reason, he gradually declined, and at last died, aged 78, 1745. Swift was clearly in morals no ornament to his sacred profession, although not what is called a vicious man. His conduct to Stella was most unfeeling. After an intimate friendship of more than sixteen years, he in 1716 married her; but still no alteration took place in their style of living; and she never resided in his house except when fits of giddiness or deafness made her presence necessary. She died of a broken heart, aged 44, 1727. Again, in a visit to England, he became acquainted (while the husband of Stella) with a Miss Vanhomrigh, better known as 'Va-

nessa,' a young lady of some fortune, who at length acknowledged her affection for him. Swift allowed her even to settle near him in Ireland, leading her to suppose him a bachelor, and that he would eventually make her his wife; but when at last she solicited him no longer to trifle with her affections, 1717, he told her, in a letter which he delivered to her himself, his inability; and she took to her bed thereon, and after altering her will, which had been made in his favour, died. As an author, Swift was an extraordinary person. His political writings (on the tory side) are unrivalled for force and argument; and his letters have only been equalled in ease, and in the art of making something out of the merest trifles, by those of Cowper. His 'Gulliver's Travels,' exhibiting an indescribable union of misanthropy, satire, irony, ingenuity, and humour, and his 'Tale of a Tub,' in which he ridiculed both popery and puritanism, were and still are very popular works. He left at his death, from an impression that he should die insane, £10,000 for the endowment of an hospital for lunatics in Dublin.

JEREMY COLLIER (1650—1726), born at Stow Qui, Cambridgeshire, was educated at Caius college, Cambridge, and taking holy orders, was presented to the rectory of Ampton, Suffolk, which he resigned 1685, on being appointed lecturer of Gray's-inn. At the revolution, he not only refused to take the oaths to the new government, but engaged as a zealous literary partisan of the dethroned monarch; and for a bitter pamphlet entitled 'The Desertion Discussed,' he was for some time imprisoned. He now published various pamphlets in defence of passive obedience and non-resistance, and in opposition to the prelates who had accepted the sees of the nonjuring bishops. These publications, and a suspicion that a journey to the coast of Kent was with a design of maintaining a correspondence with the exiled king, once more roused the attention of

government; and Collier was brought back to London in custody, though in a short time admitted to bail. In 1696 he attended sir John Freind and sir William Perkins at their execution for a participation in the assassination plot; and by absolving them, and by imposing his hand upon them, he was accused of insulting the civil and ecclesiastical government. Instead of putting in bail, Collier absconded, and was outlawed till the day of his death. In his retirement he defended his conduct, and wrote his 'Essays on Moral Subjects,' and afterwards his 'View of the Immorality of the English Stage,' in which latter, with truth and justice on his side, and armed with sufficient learning and sarcastic wit, he attacked the whole of the living dramatists, from Dryden to D'Urfey, with a force and ability which none of them could adequately parry, although Congreve, Vanburgh, Drake, and Filmer were among the apologists of the stage. Dryden candidly acknowledged the justice of the censure; and the timely reproof of the unbending non-juror indisputably led to an abatement of much unpardonable licence, and to a gradual reform of the drama. In Anne's reign great inducements were held out to Collier to conform; but he honourably maintained his principles, and employed himself on his 'Ecclesiastical History of Great Britain,' a work in which he displayed considerable learning and abilities, but which was of course violently assailed by Burnet, and other prelates. Previously to the publication of this work, and a translation of Moreri's dictionary, the author had been privately consecrated suffragan of Thetford, and a nonjuring bishop, by Dr. Hickes and the deprived bishops of Norwich, Ely, and Peterborough; and he died a martyr to the stone, aged 76, 1726. There can be but one estimate formed respecting Collier; namely that he was a man of unflinching principle, of high integrity and learning,

and of genuine piety. All he endured was from the conscientious exhibition of opinions, which, though contrary to prevailing sympathies, did honour to his heart.

ROBERT SOUTH (1633—1716), born at Hackney, Middlesex, was educated under Busby, and at Christchurch, Oxford. He took orders, and first acquired notice by congratulating Cromwell, in a Latin poem, on his having made peace with the Dutch. In the pulpit, though he appeared to favour puritanism, he assailed the independents; but when the Restoration approached, he inveighed with the most eloquent zeal against every denomination of dissenters. His abilities were so respectable, notwithstanding his time-serving character, that he was in 1660 elected public orator of the university. In 1670 he was made canon of Christchurch, and in 1676 attended Hyde on his embassy to Poland, and at his return published an account of that kingdom. In 1678 he was made rector of Islip; but though some imagined he was dissatisfied, he lived in retirement at Caversham, near Reading, and refused not only an English bishopric, but an archbishopric in Ireland. He at the Revolution took the oaths of allegiance. In 1693 he had a controversy with Dean Sherlock regarding the Trinity, which was carried on with great acrimony, when the king ordered it to cease; whereon a popular ballad, called 'the Battle Royal,' finely ridiculed the disputants. In Anne's reign, South was chiefly distinguished by his support of Sacheverell; and he died, aged 83, 1716. South was an extremely ill-tempered man; and his sermons even show a vein of satirical moroseness, though they are, in point of divinity, very sound productions.

JOHN RAY (1628—1705), born at Black Notley, Essex, was son of a poor blacksmith, but, by some patron's means, was educated at Brintree grammar-school, and Catherine-

hall, Cambridge. During Cromwell's time, he obtained a fellowship at Trinity; and though at the Restoration he took holy orders, he relinquished his fellowship rather than sign the declaration against the Covenant. After travelling with Mr. Willoughby through France and Italy, he devoted himself to the study of natural history, publishing various works on plants and animals; but he is now chiefly known as the pious author of 'The Wisdom of God manifested in the Works of Creation,' a physico-theological production, once extremely popular. He died, aged 77, 1705.

JOHN NORRIS (1657—1711), was born at Collingbourn, Kingston, Wilts, of which his father was rector. From Winchester-school he proceeded to Exeter college, Oxford, and obtained a fellowship at All Souls. In 1689 he succeeded to the living of Newton St. Lo, Somerset, and in 1691 to the better preferment of Bemerton, Wilts. He was a great controversialist and mystic, adopting Malebranche's opinion of seeing all things in the Divinity; and he stands nearly at the head of English Platonists. His works show him to be a man of genius and deep thinking, of which he has given sufficient evidence in his treatise 'On the Natural Immortality of the Soul.' He died, aged 54, 1711.

JOSEPH ADDISON (1672—1719) was born at his father's rectory, Milton, Wilts, and educated at the Charterhouse, and Queen's college, Oxford. He soon became distinguished for his Latin versification; and on the dedication of a Latin poem on the peace of Ryswick to lord Somers, that peer obtained him a pension from the crown of 300*l.* to enable him to travel. In 1701 he wrote a most finished epistolary poem from Italy to lord Halifax; and, on his return home, published a very classical account of his tour. Being appointed to celebrate Marlborough's victory at Blenheim, he produced his poem of 'The Campaign,' for which

lord Godolphin gave him the commissionership of appeals, after Locke. From this time he rapidly increased in consequence; in 1708 he attended lord Halifax in his mission to Hanover; and in 1714, was made secretary of state. He went with the marquis of Wharton as secretary to Ireland; and while absent there, his friend Steele commenced in England the 'Tatler,' to which Addison on his return became a distinguished contributor. These agreeable papers became the precursors of a body of writing, which, although not absolutely English in origin, has become essentially so in tone, spirit, effect, and social adaptation. The French and Italian authors, La Bruyère, and Castiglione, whose labours preceded the 'Tatler,' confined themselves to manners; but the English Essayists unite, with an inculcation of decorum and the minor morals, the noblest lessons both for the heart and understanding, and that by a plan admixing of all the piquancy of wit, and waywardness of humour. It may indeed be safely asserted, that much of the moral discrimination and practical good sense of the middle ranks of England are attributable to the timely prevalence of these very happy literary vehicles for general instruction and amusement. The 'Spectator,' of which 20,000 numbers were sometimes sold in a day, at a penny each, was undertaken when the 'Tatler' had ceased; and the contributions of Addison therein are known by having at their close one of the letters of the name *Clio*. The 'Guardian' and 'Whig Examiner' (for Addison was a whig) followed; but these latter were eclipsed by the extraordinary popularity of Addison's tragedy of 'Cato,' 1713, which the author would not have adapted for the stage, had not the principles of the Revolution just then begun to be assailed. The effect was singular; for though the play has little dramatic pretension, both whigs and Tories lauded it to the skies; each finding therein enough to support their respective opinions.

Under Anne, Addison wrote the 'Freeholder,' the most considerable of his political periodical works, 1715, on the breaking out of the Pretender's rebellion; and in this the strife of party is admirably softened by his excellent humour. In 1716 he married the countess dowager of Warwick, which, owing to the jealous spirit of the lady proved a very unhappy match; and in 1717 he was made secretary of state by George I., but soon resigned, on finding himself unfitted for the office. His health was now breaking; and on the approach of death, he sent for his step-son, the young earl of Warwick, who had adopted deistical notions; and grasping his hand, exclaimed expressively, 'See how a Christian can die!' He expired June 17, 1719, at Holland-house, Kensington, aged 47, leaving an only child, a daughter, by the countess. Addison has the great merit of being the first to throw off the stiffness which pervaded our language, written and spoken, up to his period; and he is also highly estimable for his assiduous labours to strip vice of her meretricious attire, and to robe religion and virtue with their own attractive and exalting graces.

RICHARD STEELE (1671—1729) was the son of the duke of Ormond's secretary, was born in Dublin, and educated at the Charterhouse and Merton college, Oxford; but he left the latter an undergraduate, to become a private trooper (for he had no fortune) in the dragoon-guards. His literary propensities made him known to lord Cutts, who obtained him an advance in the army, and made him his secretary; and Addison procured him, at the opening of Anne's reign, the post of writer of the London Gazette. After seeing his comedies, the 'Tender Husband' and 'Lying Lover,' successful, he struck upon that happy method of pleasing and benefiting the public, cheap periodical essay-writing; and by commencing the 'Tatler,' laid the foundation of a practice

which was long peculiar to this country. As the 'Tatler' (which took up politics as well as every other subject) sided with the existing ministry, its projector was appointed one of the commissioners of the stamp-duties. The 'Spectator' was Steele's next joint work, and then the 'Guardian,' and the 'Englishman.' Steele had now raised money, and was elected member for Stockbridge, but was soon expelled the house for a libel in the 'Englishman.' He, however, regained favour at the accession of George I., and received the appointments of surveyor of the royal stables, and governor of the king's comedians, and was knighted. He also again entered the house of commons as member for Boroughbridge, and received 500*l.* from sir Robert Walpole for special services. On the suppression of the rebellion of 1715, he was appointed one of the commissioners for the forfeited estates in Scotland; when he busied himself in an abortive scheme for an union between the churches of England and Scotland. Unhappily devoid of all prudential attention to economy, although he married two wives successively with respectable fortunes, he was uniformly embarrassed in his circumstances; chiefly through a speculative propensity, which led him to project schemes for benefiting all the world but himself. In 1722 he wrote his comedy of the 'Conscious Lovers,' on a hint from Terence; and dedicating it to the king, was rewarded with 500*l.* Pecuniary difficulties, however, soon after compelled him to sell his share in the play-house, and retire to a small estate in Wales belonging to his wife; where he died, aged 58, 1729.

JOHN HUGHES (1677—1720) was born at Marlborough, Wilts, and educated at a dissenting academy there, having for his fellow-student the afterwards celebrated Dr. Watts. He was of a delicate constitution, and early displayed a taste for poetry, music, and drawing; and instead of going to the University, and into a

profession, his family interest procured him a post under the board of ordnance; and he was secretary to several commissions for the purchase of lands for the dockyards of Portsmouth, Chatham, and Harwich. The first specimen he gave of his poetic vein was a poem on the peace of Ryswick, which he followed up by several others on temporary occasions; and in the mean time he became the companion of Addison, Pope, Congreve, Southern, Rowe, and other wits of the day, and contributed papers to the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, and *Guardian*. In 1717 lord chancellor Cowper made him secretary to the commissions of the peace; but though thus raised to affluence, his health, never strong, began to decline. In this condition he composed his well-known '*Siege of Damascus*,' a tragedy, his last and best work; which was first performed on the evening of his death, just in time for him to know of its success, February 17, 1720. He was in his 44th year, and left a younger brother, *Jabez Hughes*, an excellent scholar, who translated into verse the '*Rape of Proserpine*,' from Claudian, the story of Sextus and Erichtho, from the '*Pharsalia*,' and into prose many novels from the Spanish of Cervantes. He died, aged 46, 1731.

DANIEL DEFOE (1668—1731), born in Cripplegate, London, was son of a butcher, and educated amongst dissenters. Having turned soldier, he joined the cause of Monmouth, and was happy in escaping the fangs of Judge Jeffreys. He afterwards settled down a hosier, became bankrupt, and fled from his creditors. He next became known as a writer; and for some squib in favour of the Revolution, was made commissioner of the glass duty; but his '*Shortest Way with the Dissenters*,' reflecting on the government, was noticed by the commons, and he was sentenced to stand in the pillory, to be fined, and imprisoned. Being liberated by the friendship of Harley and Godolphin, the latter, when he had in 1706

written to remove the prejudices of the Scots against the Union, sent him to Edinburgh to confer on the subject with the leading men of Scotland; and when the Union had taken place, he was rewarded for his services. In 1713 he was again prosecuted for some publication, but liberated from Newgate by the influence of Oxford; and in 1719 appeared the work on which his fame now securely rests, and which will be read in some shape, so long as our language endures—'*Robinson Crusoe*.' The hint for this popular book was taken from the recent publication of the voyage of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotsman; who had escaped from a shipwreck to an uninhabited island, whereon he lived four years and some months, until found and taken home by Captain Rogers, 1709. Defoe died, aged 63, 1731.

CHRISTOPHER WREN (1632—1723) was born of a good family at Knoyle, Wilts; and being entered as a gentleman-commoner at Wadham college, Oxford, at fourteen, was thence elected fellow of All Souls. His mathematical excellence obtained him the astronomical professorship at Gresham college, 1657; and in 1661 he succeeded Seth Ward as Savilian professor at Oxford. His skill in architecture induced Charles II. to employ him as an assistant to the surveyor-general, Denham; and after visiting the continent, 1665, to inspect the various edifices, he was appointed to repair St. Paul's church. The dreadful conflagration of the city which quickly followed, called for the exertion of the powers of the ingenious architect; but his model for a new capital, though approved by the king, was not adopted. He succeeded sir J. Denham as surveyor-general, 1763, was knighted, 1764, sat twice in parliament (for Plymton, Devon, 1685, and for Melcomb Regis 1700), was in 1680 elected president of the Royal society, in 1684 was made comptroller of the works in Windsor castle, and by his advice Greenwich was selected for

the erection of an observatory. In the beautifying of London, his genius was particularly displayed; and the churches which he erected are lasting monuments of his vast powers. Besides St. Paul's, his noblest work, he built 53 churches, among which St. Stephen's, Walbrook, is particularly celebrated. The Monument was also erected by him, as also were Greenwich hospital, Emanuel college chapel and Trinity college library, Cambridge, and the Theatre at Oxford. Sir Christopher died, aged 91, 1723, and was buried with great solemnity in the vault of his cathedral; where this elegantly brief memorial records the greatness of his genius: 'Lector, si monumentum requiris, circumspice.'

THOMAS PITT (1653—1726), born at Blandford, Dorset, entered into mercantile affairs, and became governor of Madras, 1690. A long residence in India (in days when, on the one hand, the simple habits of our ancestors, and on the other, the unworked mines of oriental wealth, promoted rapid accumulation) enabled 'governor Pitt,' as he was styled, to realize a large fortune; great part of which was produced by the purchase of a large diamond for 20,400*l.*, which he sold to the king of France for more than five times that sum. A rumour prevailed in England that this jewel had been unfairly acquired; and such credit was at length given to the slander, that Mr. Pitt was induced to compose a narrative of the manner in which he really became possessed of the jewel. In 1716 he was made governor of Jamaica, but did not hold that situation more than a year; and after sitting in four parliaments for Old Sarum and Thirsk, he died, aged 73, 1726. He was grandfather of the great earl of Chatham, and founder of the Pitt family.

CLOUDESLEY SHOVEL (1656—1705), born of obscure parents in Norfolk, rose from the grade of a cabin-boy to that of an admiral. He was at the attack on Tripoli, 1674;

and by his dexterity in pointing out the weakest place in the fortifications, the place was taken, and he obtained a ship in recompence. His services in Bantry Bay occasioned William to knight him; he was one of the rear-admirals at La Hogue; and in 1705 he was sent to attack Toulon. On the last-named occasion he was unsuccessful; and he was returning to England, when his fleet ran upon the Scilly rocks, and his own vessel, with others, was unhappily wrecked. Sir Cloudesley, his sons-in-law, and many persons of distinction perished; and the admiral's body being next day cast on shore, some fishermen, ignorant of his person, took off his ring, and buried him in the sand. The ring discovered his quality; the fishermen pointed out where they had deposited the body, which was brought to Portsmouth, and conveyed thence to Westminster-abbey for interment. Sir Cloudesley was a great benefactor to the town of Rochester, though neither a Kentish man, nor a man of Kent; the distinction being drawn between those born in the county on the Kent side of Rochester bridge, and those born in the same county on the side towards London. The Kentish men keep up many feudal practices, and regard themselves as of more purely Saxon origin than those of other counties.

ARCANGELO CORELLI (1653—1713) was born at Fusignano, in the Bolognese, and after studying counterpoint under the best masters, became violinist to the duke of Bavaria, 1680. His 'Solos,' on which his fame rests, were produced at Rome, 1700; and while resident in the capital, he attracted by his extraordinary skill on the violin the notice of cardinal Ottoboni, who, himself no mean performer, gave him apartments in his palace as 'attuale servitore.' From Rome Corelli went, by royal invitation, to Naples, where he found the orchestra so superior to that of Rome, —which latter he had supposed advanced beyond all others by his own

exertions,—that his spirits are said to have sunk, and his death to have ensued in consequence soon after his arrival, 1713, he being then 60 years old. The solos of Corelli, and his opera 'Quinta,' are indispensable as elementary works to the young violinist. Corelli is regarded as the founder of the ancient school of violinists; his pupil, Geminiani, who was more original as a composer, being as it were the sequel to him, and the finish of that system of which he was the beginning.

HENRI DE BELSUNCE (1676—1756), bishop of Marseilles, has a place in history for his conduct during the plague which ravaged that city 1720-21; on which dreadful occasion his fortitude, charity, and benevolent exertions, procured him the love and admiration, not only of the miserable inhabitants of his diocese, but of all Europe; while the appellation of 'the good bishop' has, in consequence, descended to posterity, as an impenishable adjunct to his name. He was a jesuit, and descended of a noble family in Guienne. On the cessation of the pestilence, he was honoured by the pope with the pallium, a mark of distinction never granted to any below the rank of archbishop; and Louis XV. offered him the rich bishopric of Laon, which confers on its possessor a ducal coronet. The latter, however, the 'good bishop' respectfully declined, declaring that his present flock was endeared to him alike by habit and calamity, and that he would never quit them. He founded a college in Marseilles, and wrote a very interesting history of its bishops, yet extant. He died, aged 80, 1756; and the utmost honour was done to his remains by the people of his city.

THE DACIERS.—These were husband and wife; the former, *Andrew Dacier*, born at Castries, in Languedoc; the latter, *Mlle Le Févre*, born at Saumur, both in the same year, 1651. Andrew, after studying under the learned Tannegui Le Févre at Saumur, married his daughter, 1683; and in two years from their union the

pair forsook Calvinism for the Romish faith. Andrew became perpetual secretary to the French Academy, and keeper of the cabinet of the Louvre, and died, aged 71, 1722, having survived his wife two years. The Daciers are well known as joint commentators and translators of the Greek and Latin classics,—*Madame Dacier*, though with much pedantry, displaying abilities far superior to those of her husband. The learning of both was very extensive; but the lady's critical acquaintance with Greek (the result of much laborious study), and the aid she afforded literature, throw a lustre upon her entire sex.

GEORGE BULL (1684—1709), born at Wells, entered at Exeter college, Oxford, 1648; but refusing to take the oath of allegiance (to the puritans), he quitted the university, and at 21 was privately ordained by Skinner, the deprived bishop of Oxford. At the Restoration, he obtained the living of Suddington St. Peter, and soon after became known as a controversial writer. His 'Harmonia Apostolica' gave great offence to the Calvinists; for his 'Defensio Fidei Nicenæ,' the object of which was to prove the consubstantiality and co-eternity of the Son to have been the tenet of the Church before the council of Nice, Oxford gave him the degree of D.D., and he was made prebendary of Gloucester, rector of Avening, and archdeacon of Llandaff; and for the publication of his 'Judicium Ecclesiæ Catholicæ,' he received the thanks of Bossuet, and the leading divines of the Romish church, 1694. As this last work occasioned the Romanists to ask 'what difference then existed between Rome and England?' Bull replied by a work on the Corruptions of the Romish church. In 1705 he was made bishop of St. David's; and he died, aged 75, 1709, justly esteemed as one of the soundest theologians of the Anglo-Catholic church.

JOHN MAZEPPA, of a noble but reduced Polish family, was born in Podolia, and became page to the king, John II. Casimir, 1660. On being

detected in an intrigue with a married lady, he was, according to Polish law, fastened by the husband to the back of a wild horse, and left to his fate. The animal having been bred in the deserts of the Ukraine, directed his course thither; and expiring at length with fatigue, dropped beneath his miserable rider, who was found by the Cossacks half-dead. His talents and knowledge soon raised him to eminence among a people where all power was elective; and when their hetman was deposed, 1687, Mazeppa was chosen to fill his place. In this post he acquired the confidence of Peter the Great; but becoming tired of his dependance on the czar, he entered into a secret league against him with Charles XII. When Peter discovered the affair, he took Batourin, the capital of the Ukraine; and Mazeppa fled thereupon to the king of Sweden, who was advancing with his army towards the Ukraine. The battle of Pultowa was undertaken by Charles through his counsel; and after that disastrous engagement, he took refuge with the king of Sweden at Bender, and died there, 1709.

CONTEMPORARIES.—JOSHUA BARNES, born in London, and educated at Christ's hospital, and Emmanuel college, Cambridge, became distinguished for his proficiency in the Greek language, which he soon spoke with facility. He became fellow of his college, and Greek professor in his university. In 1700 Mrs. Mason, of Hemmingford, a widow in possession of 200*l.* a year, visited him at Cambridge; and her promise to settle upon him half her property at her death, induced him to solicit her hand, which the same obliging lady did not refuse, observing 'that even the sun had stood still at the solicitation of a Joshua.' Barnes's publications are valuable for their erudition, and the labour he bestowed on his criticisms, though subsequent annotators have surpassed him in taste, wherein, from a natural roughness of character, he was clearly deficient. His want of nice discrimination, in-

deed, caused the learned Bentley, with whom he was no favourite, to say of him, 'that he knew the Greek language much as an Athenian cobbler must have done.' He edited Homer, Euripides, Anacreon, &c., was author of a life of Edward III., and died, aged 56, 1712. ANTHONY COLLINS, born at Helston, and educated at Eton, and King's college, Cambridge, entered at the Temple, but left the law for literature, and passed a life of controversy with Sherlock, Clarke, Whiston, and other antagonists; taking a part which proved him more disposed to infidelity, than to support the Christian doctrines. On his last bed, however, he evinced repentance, and he died 1729. ROGER COTES, born at Burbach, Leicestershire, was educated at St. Paul's school, and Trinity college, Cambridge. In 1706 he was made Plumian professor of experimental philosophy (founded 1704 by Dr. Plume, now worth about 180*l.* per annum), and in that capacity wrote 'Harmonia Mensurarum,' treating of the quadrature of curves by several ingenious methods, derived from extensions of those used by Newton. The work also contains various improvements in the rules for integration, and indicates methods of finding various large classes of fluents; besides comprising some original properties of the circle, and other geometrical speculations—all subsequently improved on by De Moivre. Cotes died, aged 38, 1716. HENRY DODWELL, born in Dublin, and educated at the cost of his uncle at Trinity college there, quitted his fellowship because he would not take holy orders, as required by the statutes. He in 1674 settled in London, and was, for his 'Annals of Thucydides and Xenophon,' elected Camden professor of history at Oxford, without his knowledge. He lost that chair, however, for refusing to take the oath of allegiance to William, but was eventually reconciled to the government, and died at Shottesbrooke, aged 70, 1711. His eldest son, Henry, was afterwards known by

his attack on revelation, 'Christianity not founded on Argument,' which was successfully answered by his own brother, William, D.D. of Trinity college, Oxford, archdeacon of Berks, and the castigator of Dr. Middleton's 'free inquiry.' JOHN FLAMSTEAD, born at Derby, turned his mind to astronomy, on meeting with Sacrobosko's 'De Sphæra' while at school, began calculating eclipses, and received the thanks of the royal society, 1669, for his table of eclipses of the fixed stars by the moon. He eventually entered at Jesus college, Cambridge, became acquainted with Newton and Barrow, and, through the friendship of sir Jonas Moore, attained the post of astronomer-royal (then 100*l.* a-year). He afterwards took orders, and died at his living of Burston, Surrey, aged 73, 1719. Flamstead's chief contribution to science was 'Historia Cælestis Britannica,' containing a vast mass of observations, and an extensive and accurate catalogue of the fixed stars; and his publication, at sir Jonas Moore's desire, of an ephemeris, to show the folly of astrology, originated singularly enough, by a sort of antiphrasis, the modern celebrated 'Moore's Almanack.' GIOVANNI GRAVINA, born at Roggiano, studied at Naples, and was made professor of canon law in the Sapienzi college at Rome. His best work is 'De Ortu et Progressu Juris Civilis;' but his learning made him no friends, through his misanthropic disposition. He died, aged 54, 1718. SAMUEL GARTH, born in Yorkshire, was educated at Peter-house, Cambridge, and settled in London as a physician, 1692. In the disputes between the physicians and apothecaries about the establishment of dispensaries, he supported the former, who wished to administer to the relief of the sick poor gratis; and the apothecaries still opposing the benevolent design, he wrote his 'Dispensary,' in imitation of Boileau's 'Lutrin,' to ridicule them, and saw his poem run through three large editions in as many months. Though notoriously a free-

thinker in religion, the talents and urbanity of Garth now placed him at the head of his profession; when, supporting whig principles, he chiefly originated the Kit-cat club, 1703, composed of 30 noblemen and gentlemen, to support the Hanoverian succession. (The club was so called from Christopher Kat, a Westminster pastry cook, who used to supply the meeting with pies. It was held in King-street, Westminster; and its toasts were engraven on the drinking-glasses, lest Jacobite sentiments should creep in.) On the accession of George I. Dr. Garth was knighted with Marlborough's own sword, and appointed the king's physician in ordinary; and he died, aged 57, 1718. (*Kit-cat pictures*, i. e. oil portraits of persons, of the natural size, down to the knees, or as they are technically styled 'three-quarter pictures,' take their name from sir Godfrey Kneller having painted all the original members of the club in that size). PIERRE HUET, born at Caen, devoted himself to literature on being cheated by his guardians, and accompanied his friend Bochart to the court of Christina of Sweden, 1652. He did not, however, care to remain long about the person of that fickle princess; and after acting as preceptor to the dauphin, took orders, and was made bishop of Soissons, 1685. His last years were passed among the Jesuits; and he died, aged 90, 1721. Huet originated what are styled 'The Delphin Classics,' being the chief Latin authors with the assistance of an ordo and commentary, prepared to encourage the idleness of his royal pupil. He did better in giving to the world his notes on the Vulgate, in attacking the fanciful theories of Descartes, and in writing his valuable 'Demonstratio Evangelica.' GEORGE HICKES, born at Newsham, Yorkshire, was of St. John's and Magdalen colleges, Oxford, then of Magdalen-hall, and lastly fellow of Lincoln college. After travelling with his pupil, the son of sir George Wheeler, on the continent, he went as chaplain to the duke of Lauder-

dale into Scotland, and there received the degree of D.D. from archbishop Sharpe of St. Andrew's. In 1688 he was raised to the deanry of Worcester; and when, on refusing to take the oaths to William, he saw Talbot, afterwards bishop of Durham, nominated in his room, he boldly opposed him, and affixed a paper to the cathedral-doors, asserting his own right to the deanry. To avoid the persecution of the government, Hickes now fled to France, till proceedings were stayed against him through the interest of lord chancellor Somers; but even after this favour, he was the individual sent by the nonjuring clergy to St. Germain's, to concert measures with the exiled king, for the appointment of bishops in the English church out of the Jacobite party. On this occasion he was made suffragan bishop of Thetford, at James's command, by the bishops of Norwich, Ely, and Peterborough; an elevation which he survived 20 years, dying in France, aged 78, 1715. As a Saxon scholar, Dr. Hickes is still highly regarded for his works on the Anglo-Saxon and northern tongues, which form a perfect treasury of Gothic literature. His theological works consist of sermons, and various tracts in support of the Jacobite cause; and he adduces the testimony of the Fathers, with whose writings he was admirably acquainted, to prove the exact conformity of the church of England with the Catholic Church in the earliest ages of its existence. JOHN HICKES, brother of the bishop, was quite the antipodist of his nonjuring brother, being a nonconformist of the Baxterian class, who, for his infringement of the conventicle act, was denounced in the reign of Charles II. as a state criminal. Two messengers being sent into Devonshire to apprehend him, and he happening to meet them when on the road thither, they had the imprudence to disclose the nature of their errand, not knowing Hickes's person. The latter, who was an athletic man, accompanied them to their inn, told

them who he was, horsewhipped them soundly, and then set off to London alone. He not only obtained an interview with Charles, but an indemnity for himself, and the promise of protection for the Devon dissenters. In the next reign he joined Monmouth's rebellion, fought at Sedgemoor, was seized among the party who had taken refuge at lady Lisle's house, and executed as a traitor, 1685. JOHNSON HUDSON, born at Wide-hope, Cumberland, and educated at Queen's college, Oxford, took holy orders, became a fellow of University college, D.D., keeper of the Bodleian library, and principal of St. Mary hall. To his interest with Dr. Radcliffe, Oxford is indebted for the latter's noble gifts. Dr. Hudson is celebrated for commenting on various Greek and Latin authors, and for an excellent edition of Josephus. He died, aged 57, 1719. ARCHIBALD PITCAIRNE, born at Edinburgh, became a physician, disputed the right of Harvey to the discovery of the circulation of the blood, declaring he had himself known it by reading Hippocrates, and accepted the chair of medicine at Leyden, 1692. On his return in 1694 to Scotland, he became more known as a medical writer and Jacobite, than as a physician; and his '*Dissertationes Medicæ*' gained him great fame. He died, aged 61, 1713. OLAUS ROEMER, a Dane, studied astronomy, and returning to France with Picard, who had been sent to Copenhagen by the French king to make observations in the north, he was made mathematical tutor to the dauphin. After ten years' residence at Paris, he was recalled 1681, to be made royal astronomical professor at Copenhagen, where he died 1710. Roëmer is only known now by being the first to demonstrate the great but finite velocity with which light travels; which is precisely such as to occupy about 14 minutes in traversing the diameter of the earth's orbit. FREDERIC RUYSCH, born at the Hague, became anatomical professor at Amsterdam, and made

a valuable collection of natural curiosities, which the czar Peter, when at Amsterdam, prevailed on him to sell to him for 50,000 florins. Both he and his son Henry, whom he survived, have left valuable anatomical works. He died, aged 93, 1731. GEORGE ERNEST STAHL, born at Anspach, became physician to the duke of Saxe-Weimar, and as medical professor at Halle, was famous over all Germany for his academical prelections. He was at last physician to the king of Prussia, and died at Berlin, aged 74, 1734. He is now chiefly remembered as the author of the doctrine which explains the principal chemical phenomena by the agency of phlogiston (so called from *phlogizo*, Greek, *to burn*; Stahl holding that pure fire in a quiescent state, 'the matter of fire' as it was styled, exists in all combustible bodies, only needing some outward excitant to give it liberty, or, in other words, to produce combustion and burning); and though his system was in a great measure overturned by the discoveries of Priestley and Lavoisier, it is allowed powerfully to have evinced the talents of the projector. It therefore maintained its ground for more than half a century, and was supported by some of the most eminent men in Europe. Stahl was also the propounder of a theory of medicine, based on the principle of the utter dependance of the body on the mind. Every state, good or ill of the body, is only the result of the mental working thereon; every action of the muscles is a voluntary effort of the mind, whether attended with consciousness or not. The theory is doubtless founded in truth and nature, however both the promulgator and his disciples have run riot in the details; and Stahl's anxious directions to the faculty to consult the patient's state of mind in their treatment, should be regarded with that attention which the philosopher's talents and the cause of truth alike demand. THE SPANHEIM FAMILY. — These were a father and two sons, the former a native of Amberg, and

the two latter of Geneva. *Frederic*, the father, in holy orders, long held a divinity chair at Geneva, and then at Leyden, wrote on *Universal Grace* and other theological subjects, and died, aged 49, 1649. *Ezekiel*, his eldest son, and the most celebrated of the Spanheims, became professor of eloquence at Geneva, and then tutor to the son of the elector palatine. After acting as the elector's envoy to various courts for a series of years, he entered the service of the elector of Brandenburg, who, when he took the style of king of Prussia, made him his chief minister, with the title of baron, and sent him ambassador to England, where he died, 1710. He wrote some valuable books on ancient coins and medals. *Frederic*, the younger brother of Ezekiel, was divinity professor, first at Heidelberg and then at Leyden, and wrote an excellent ecclesiastical history. He obtained much fame as a preacher, and died 1701. JOHN TOLAND, born in Ireland, was brought up in the Romish tenets, but renounced that church and Christianity itself at Leyden, and published his '*Christianity not Mysterious*,' 1696, which the parliament caused to be burned by the common hangman, as subversive of all religion. Harley, the English minister, patronized him notwithstanding, on the score of his great genius; but he died respected by few, at Putney, aged 53, 1722. WILLIAM WOLASTON, also a deist, was born at Coton Clanford, Staffordshire, and completed his education at Sidney college, Cambridge. After acting some years as assistant in Birmingham school, he came into a good property through the decease of a relative, 1688, and then devoted himself wholly to literary pursuits. He died through a fracture of the arm, 1724, aged 65. His chief work, '*The Religion of Nature*,' attempts to explain the truth of religion on mathematical principles. Though its style is inelegant, the ingenuity of the author's theory entitles him to the praise of

talent, and occasioned numerous editions of his book to be rapidly published; but the best that can be said of it is, that it might serve to furnish a faith for mankind, were the world unhappily deprived of the blessings of revelation. **THE GRONOVIIUS FAMILY.** The founder of this talented house was *John Frederick Gronovius*, born at Hamburg, who succeeded *Daniel Heinsius* as Greek professor at Leyden, edited *Sallust*, *Livy*, *Seneca*, *Plautus*, *Pliny*, *Aulus Gellius*, and *Quintilian*, and died 1672. *James*, his son, born at Deventer, surpassed his father in classical acquirements, visited England, Spain, and Italy, in all which countries he became known to the learned, and at last occupied his father's chair at Leyden. He published excellent editions, with annotations, of *Cicero*, *Tacitus*, *Polybius*, *Macrobius*, *Suetonius*, *Quintus Curtius*, and other classical authors, together with an original and highly valuable work '*Thesaurus Antiquitatum Græcorum*,' and died 1716. *Abraham*, the son of *James*, was professor of history at Leyden, edited *Justin*, *Ælian*, *Tacitus*, and other ancient authors, and died 1775. *John Frederick*, a younger son of *James*, became a physician at Leyden, and was highly famous as a naturalist, writing on minerals, camphor, &c. He died 1762. *Lawrence*, son of the last-named *John Frederick*, was a lawyer and magistrate at Leyden, wrote on fishes, stones, &c., and died 1777. **THE CASSINI FAMILY.** *Giovanni Cassini*, founder of the family, was born in Piedmont, and displayed so early a taste for science, that he was made professor of mathematics at Bologna at fifteen. The appearance of a comet in 1652 enabled him to make observations on those bodies, and to establish the doctrine that they were not meteors, as before regarded, but a species of planet governed by regular laws. He afterwards determined the apogee and eccentricity of a planet from its true and mean place, a problem which even *Kepler* had given up as insol-

able, and settled the theory of *Jupiter's* satellites. *Louis XIV.* having constituted him astronomer-royal at Paris, 1669, and the philosopher over-staying in that capacity the period of six years, granted him by the pope, *Colbert*, on finding him obliged to forfeit his offices of inspector-general of the fortifications of the *Urbino*, and of the papal rivers, made him a denizen of France, 1676. As the first occupier of the new observatory at Paris, he determined the revolution of *Jupiter* round his axis, added four satellites to *Saturn*, proved that the meridian line, fixed at *Bologna* in 1655, had not varied in a period of forty years, and continued it through France, where he died, aged 77, 1712. *Jean Jacques*, his son, inherited the taste and talents of his father. He resided at Paris, and described the perpendicular of the meridian of France from *St. Maloes* through Paris to *Strasburg*. His theory of the earth (contrary to *Newton*) being an oblong spheroid, was proved erroneous by the party sent by *Louis XIV.* to measure a degree of the meridian at the equator and polar circle; nevertheless his astronomical tables, &c., are highly esteemed. He died, aged 84, 1756. *César François*, son of the latter, calculated, when a boy of 10, the phases of the sun in a total eclipse, and afterwards engaged in verifying the meridian passing through the observatory at Paris. He made a geometrical survey of France, and died 1784. *PAUL DE RAPIN DE THOYRAS*, usually styled '*Rapin*,' born at *Castres* in *Languedoc*, quitted the French army on the revocation of the *Edict of Nantes*, and arrived in England, 1686. After a short stay in London, he enlisted in a French regiment in *Flanders*; and accompanying *William III.* to England, served at the battle of the *Boyne*, and was wounded at the siege of *Limerick*. In 1693 he was tutor to *lord Portland's* son, and was promised great patronage by *William*, which, however, he never received; and upon finding no fur-

ther support, he retired to Wezel, in Germany, and devoted the remainder of his life to a history of England, in French, eight volumes of which (to the death of Charles I.) he had published, when his health gave way through his constant application, and he died of a nervous fever, aged 64, 1725. The great work of Rapin has been translated and continued by Tindal; and for impartiality and steady information it is deserving of the greatest praise. Until the appearance of Hume's, no history of their country but this by a Frenchman was regarded as authority by the English. THOMAS BETTERTON, born in London, appeared first as a player, 1656, and after the Restoration was sent by Charles II. to Paris, to copy the superior ornaments of its theatre. On his return, he drew great attention by his acting on the Drury-lane and Lincoln's-inn-fields boards; but when those two theatres united their companies, he started a new house in Lincoln's-inn-fields, 1695. The opposition of Vanburgh and Cibber, however, who headed the old united company at Drury-lane, compelled him to give in; and though he afterwards built the Haymarket in the same spirit, 1706, even his company there was drawn away to join the old house, where Betterton himself at last appeared, 1709. His *Othello*, *Macbeth*, *Hamlet*, *Brutus*, and *Hotspur*, were regarded as perfect representations; and until the time of Garrick, he was the acknowledged head of the British stage. He died, aged 75, 1710, and was buried in Westminster-abbey. SEBASTIAN LECCLERC, a helper to the cook of St. Arnould's priory, at Metz, having shown a taste for design, was recommended by his prior to Louis XIV., who made him engraver-royal, and to Clement XI., who knighted him. He was admirable in architectural landscapes, indeed the first Frenchman in that style; and he also wrote a valuable work on architecture. He died, aged 77, 1714. HUMPHREY PRIDEAUX, born at Padstow, Corn-

wall, and educated at Westminster, and Christ-church, Oxford, was promoted to the deanry of Norwich for his work on the Arundelian marbles, 1702. Being grievously injured during an operation for the stone, 1712, he was ever after unable to officiate in the church; and he then wrote his excellent 'Connections of the Old and New Testament.' He died, aged 76, 1724. JOHN JEFFERY, D.D., born at Ipswich, was educated at Catherine-hall, Cambridge, and made by Tillotson archdeacon of Norwich. He was highly popular as a preacher, published Sir T. Browne's 'Christian Morals,' and being averse from controversy, observed 'that it commonly produced more heat than light.' He died, aged 72, 1720. PASQUIER QUESNEL (1634—1719), born at Paris, entered among the fathers of the Oratory, and became noted for his love of theological controversy. His edition of Leo the Great's works, 1675, and subsequently his 'New Testament, with moral reflections,' gave great offence to the papal court; and 101 propositions being selected from the latter work, they were condemned by the famous bull, *Unigenitus*, as supporting the predestinarian notions of Jansenism. The father, on his condemnation, quitted France for Brussels, and died in exile at Amsterdam, aged 85.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1695, Mustafa II.; 1703, Ahmed III. POPE.—1700, Clement XI. FRANCE.—1643, Louis XIV. RUSSIA.—1696, Peter I. SWEDEN.—1697, Charles XII. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1699, Frederick IV. PORTUGAL.—1683, Pedro II.; 1705, John V. SPAIN.—1700, Philip V. GERMANY.—1658, Leopold I.; 1705, Joseph I.; 1711, Charles VI. POLAND.—1696, Augustus I.; 1704, Stanislaus Leczinski; 1709, Augustus I. restored. PRUSSIA.—1700, Frederick I.; 1713, Frederick William I. NETHERLANDS.—1702, Heinsius; 1711, William IV. DELHI.—1658, Alemgir I. (Aurungzeb); 1707, Bahader Shah; 1712, Jehamder;

1718, Firokhser. CHINA.—1661, Kang-hi. HUNGARY.—1687, Joseph I., emperor; 1712, Charles VI., em-
 peror. End of Civil Wars. PERSIA.—1694, Hosein Mirza.

REIGN CLXXI.

GEORGE I., KING OF ENGLAND.

FIRST OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER OR BRUNSWICK.

1714 TO 1727—13 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—George I., son of the first elector of Hanover, was born at Hanover, 1660. He inherited, as great-grandson, through the female line, of James I. of England. James's daughter, Elizabeth, married, 1613, Frederick V., count-palatine of the Rhine and king of Bohemia, who died dispossessed of his dominions, 1632; and she had by him (besides prince Rupert, who became so distinguished a supporter of his uncle Charles I.) Sophia, who married Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick, and first elector of Hanover, 1658. This Sophia and the duke were the parents of six sons and a daughter; the eldest of all whom was George I., who became king of England at the age of 54.

George was in person about the middle height, with a sedate countenance, approaching to solemnity: he was affable, though ceremonious, and was seldom cheerful but in the presence of his German adherents. He displayed a marked preference on all occasions for his continental dominions, and for German persons and things. Having been noted for a strict economy in the management of his Hanoverian state, he was fully capable, at the age of 54, when he succeeded to the British throne, of understanding how best he might pursue its interests, without neglecting the glory of his acquired sovereignty. He married his cousin Sophia, daughter of George duke of Zell, by whom he had—1. *George II.*; 2. *Sophia*, who married Frederick William, king of Prussia, father of Frederick the Great. The marriage of George I. proved very unhappy: the pair were divorced before his coming to England, and the queen was imprisoned in the castle of Ahlen thirty-two years, until her death in 1726.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—King George, who had been proclaimed, August 1, landed from Germany at Greenwich, September 18, 1714, and walked to his residence in the park, accompanied by the duke of Northumberland and the lords of the regency. Before he went to bed on the night of his arrival, he sent for such peers as had supported his claim, especially the duke of Marlborough; and declared that his maxim was 'to do justice to all the world; never to abandon his friends, and to fear no man.' It was soon, however, seen that the whigs alone were his friends, as being the supporters of the Hanoverian succession; and under the changed titles of Hanoverians and Jacobites, the two great parties, therefore, stood prepared for the fight with greater acrimony than ever. George's first parliament began with impeaching the tory ministry of the late reign; and the earl of Oxford was sent to the Tower for his conduct in respect to the treaty of Utrecht, a pacification which the whigs had never forgiven. As tumults of the people became every day more frequent, every movement served only to increase the severity of the legislature; and an act was now passed, declaring that if any persons to the number of twelve, should continue together one hour after being required to disperse by a proper officer, they should be deemed guilty of felony, with-

out benefit of clergy (an ancient privilege granted to the clergy, who, being accused of felony, might appeal to go before their respective bishops to be cleared. The benefit sometimes extended to the Church itself; and felons taking refuge within its consecrated aisles, could not be arrested).

Such vindictive proceedings excited the indignation of the people; and great umbrage began to be taken at the swarms of poor titled Germans who harboured about the court. The public odium fell especially on Mlle Schulemburg, afterwards made duchess of Kendal, and the countess Plaaten; the general opinion being that these ladies, in common with similar foreign importations, were intent only on robbing the treasury and palace of money and jewels. The crowds did not hesitate to express their suspicion and hatred on every opportunity; and on one occasion, when a Hanoverian lady of the court, on being assaulted by the maledictions of a mob, had boldly put her head out of the carriage-window, and exclaimed, in broken English, 'Why do you aboose us, good people? We come for *all your goods*;'—'Yes,' responded one of the crowd, with a stentorian voice, 'and for *all our chattels too*!' The same severities actually occasioned a rebellion in Scotland; where, to their other grievances, they joined that of the Union. Some of the Tories hereupon began to associate with the partisans of James II.'s son, whose pretensions to the Scottish throne were first made known in the preceding reign; and in 1715 the earl of Mar proclaimed him king of Scotland at Castleton. Two ships arrived from France with arms, and the earl was soon at the head of 10,000 well-provided men. The duke of Argyle, commander of all king George's northern troops, attacked the earl near Dunblane, and claimed the victory; while another party of the insurgents was defeated more decidedly at Preston, November, 1715. The prince himself landed from France soon after; and, having been crowned at Scone, as James VIII., returned to the continent with some of his most ardent supporters. Other parties of the Pretender sounded the south; but they also were put down, and great severity was instantly practised upon the officers who had been taken prisoners. These, among whom were many Scottish peers, were paraded through the streets of London, pinioned and bound together, to intimidate their friends; and in a few days lords Derwentwater, Nithsdale, and Kenmuir, were ordered to be executed on Tower-hill, Nithsdale, however, escaping by the intrepidity of his wife.

The danger in which the state had been placed, was now made a pretext by the whigs for the continuance of the parliament for seven years, instead of being dissolved in three, as heretofore: this was passed into a law, and all objections made to it were considered as the result of disaffection. The injustice, however, of the proceeding is evident enough, for no delegated body can have a right to extend its power in this way: and if the commons could sit for seven years by their own mere consent, they could sit perpetually, without even the shadow of a nomination. Meanwhile Charles XII. of Sweden, highly provoked that the English ministry had joined the Russians and Danes in a confederacy against him while at Bender, had been maintaining a close correspondence with the Pretender's party in England; and had himself resolved to land with an army somewhere on the island. But his death at Frederickschall, 1718, put an end to George's fears; and the king became a party to the celebrated quadruple alliance. Germany, France, Holland, and England, bound themselves by this treaty (the contrivance of Alberoni) to make certain exchanges for the emperor, who was to give up his right to Spain, and take Sicily from the duke of Savoy. The arrangement, however, displeasing the king of Spain, a rupture ensued between that power and the emperor, which rendered Spain hostile to Britain, and served to raise again the declining hopes of the Pretender and his adherents. It was expected that,

by the assistance of cardinal Alberoni, the Spanish minister, a new insurrection might be raised in England; and the duke of Ormond was therefore granted by Alberoni ten ships of war and transports, having on board 6000 regular troops, wherewith to make a descent. A violent storm, however, disabled the fleet entirely off cape Finisterre; and the seizure of Sardinia and invasion of Italy by the Spaniards, giving pretence for the sailing of a strong English fleet to the Mediterranean under sir George Byng, the Spanish fleet was encountered, and nearly annihilated off Sicily, August 11, 1718. These misfortunes at length induced king Philip of Spain to sign the quadruple alliance.

An act of parliament, which made the Irish senate dependant on the British, gave great concern at this period to the Irish people; but the South Sea Bubble, as it was called, 1720, caused all minor evils to be disregarded; and the whole nation was stupified by the ruin brought upon it, through a phrensied desire to amass boundless wealth. When the effects of this calamity were beginning to wear off, a fresh conspiracy against the Hanoverian line was discovered, 1722, and led to the apprehension of the celebrated bishop Atterbury, who was banished for life. The ministers of France and England, cardinal Fleury and sir Robert Walpole, being both peacefully inclined, the two countries remained in repose, and thus secured the tranquillity of Europe, until roused by a treaty entered into, 1725, between Spain and the emperor. The jealousy of George induced him to call on all the other powers to counteract this union; and admiral Hosier was sent to the West Indies with a fleet to seize the Spanish galleons, or ships which conveyed the silver from the South American mines to European Spain. Hosier failed however in the enterprise; and the climate cutting off his men by hundreds, he fell sick, and died of a broken heart, through anxiety to obey the ambitious orders he continually received from home, a catastrophe which was regarded as the most inglorious disaster of the reign. The Spaniards then commenced the siege of Gibraltar; but by the mediation of France peace was renewed between Spain and England, 1726, and George now determined on a visit to his continental dominions. Having appointed a regency, he crossed to Voet, in Holland, June 6, 1727; next day he proceeded on his journey; and in two days more, between ten and eleven at night, arrived at Delden, to all appearance in perfect health. He supped there very heartily, and continued his journey early next morning; but between eight and nine o'clock ordered his coach to be stopped. It being perceived that one of his hands lay motionless, M. Fabricius his attendant (who had been about the person of Charles XII.) attempted to quicken the circulation, by chafing it between his own; but the king soon after fell into his arms, and never spoke again. At eleven the next morning he expired, June 11, aged 67, and his body was conveyed to Hanover for interment.

EVENTS.

THE PRETENDER'S INVASION, 1715, as in the Scottish History.

THE SOUTH SEA BUBBLE, 1720.—The nature of the South Sea stock has before been shown. Sir Robert Walpole, the minister, formed a design in 1721 of lessening the national debts; and as this was not the only association to which the state owed money, he offered to all the national creditors five per cent. interest, in-

stead of six, or agreed to pay them the principal. The different companies chose rather to receive the diminished interest than the principal; whereupon one Blount, a scrivener, proposed to the ministry, in the name of the South Sea company, to buy up all the debts of the various companies, so that the South Sea might become the sole creditors of the state. As the terms offered to the government

were highly advantageous, involving a reduction of interest, after six years, of one per cent., &c., a bill passed both houses to allow the transaction; but now came the part of the scheme big with fraud and ruin. As the directors of the company could not be supposed to possess sufficient money to buy up the debts of the nation, they were empowered to raise it by opening a subscription to an imaginary scheme for trading in the South Seas; from which immense advantages were promised, and still greater expected by the rapacious credulity of the people. The directors' books were no sooner opened, than crowds came to make the exchange of government stock for that of South Sea. The plan succeeded beyond the projectors' hopes, the stock increased to nearly ten times the value of what it was first bought for, and the whole nation was infected with a spirit of avaricious enterprise. A few months passed away, however, and the delusion was at an end: and thousands of families which had been living in comfort and even splendour, were involved in one common ruin. The directors were stripped of their unjust gains, such as had seats in parliament, or places under government, were deprived of them, and even some of the ministry were disgraced on the same account; but it is a singular fact that more persons lost their senses by the sudden acquisition of wealth before the bursting of the Bubble, than by the loss and positive ruin its rupture occasioned.

RISE OF HUTCHINSONIANISM.—John Hutchinson, after being steward to the duke of Somerset, obtained from his grace a sinecure post. His education in Yorkshire had been wholly private, and he had long devoted himself to the collection of fossils, with a view to prove the truth of the Mosaic account of the creation. He at first associated himself in a work on the subject with Dr. Woodward; but appeared in 1724, as sole author of a book called 'Moses' Principia,' wherein, assailing Newton's doc-

trines of a vacuum and gravity, he contends for a plenum and air; and hints that the idea of the Trinity was to be taken from the three grand agents in the system of nature—fire, light, and spirit; these three conditions of the same substance, *air*, being remarkably typical of three persons in one and the same essence. This notion was favoured by Dr. Samuel Clarke, and, with other doctrines of Hutchinson, has been supported by more recent divines, including the amiable bishop Horne, Jones of Nayland, and Parkhurst. Conceiving that all knowledge, natural as well as theological, was contained in the Scriptures, Hutchinson assigned to every Hebrew root a spiritual or mental meaning, in addition to the sensible object to which it referred.

Perhaps the best argument against the utility of such discussions is contained in these two propositions: 1st, that Moses, in becoming an historian, did not purpose to compose a work on natural philosophy; but simply to account for the origin of man, his fall, and the necessity of his redemption; and 2dly, that we could, if we liked to argue the question, advance what is not at all wanted, and yet is matter of fact, that many of the most important discoveries of natural philosophers confirm the truth of the Mosaic account of both the creation and the deluge. Nay we would even say that the Bible is proved by the experiments of modern men of science to be a much more philosophical work than is usually conceived—more definitely so than the works of even Plato or Aristotle. Even Job, who was a little before Moses, tells us that the earth hangeth upon nothing, as if he had not been ignorant of the motions of the planets; whereas the Greeks, even until the time of Pythagoras, believed the earth to be flat, and founded on a fixed basis. Geologists have shown that the bones of man are never found in a fossil state, but that those of all other animals constantly are; thus practically

illustrating the truth of the solemn denunciation, 'Unto dust shalt thou return!' Very recent chemical discoveries have shown that what had been for ages regarded as two distinct principles, water and air, are easily convertible, one into the other; and that the atmosphere is only by a chemical arrangement held separate from the waters of the earth: thus confirming the truth of the passage, 'God made the firmament, and divided the waters which were under the firmament, from the waters which were above the firmament.' In the article 'Creation' we have pointed out how natural philosophers have proved that fire, and consequently light, have an existence independently of the sun; thus destroying at once what was formerly a powerful argument amongst the opponents of Moses, against the invention of light three days before that of its depository, the sun. Lastly, Moses 'was learned in the wisdom of the Egyptians;' and it is more than proved that the ancient Egyptians held a right notion of the theory of the universe. What is the Copernican but the Pythagorean system (acquired by the philosopher when resident in Egypt, and only divested of his own and his disciples' blunders) which, after being promulgated perhaps by Moses himself to the people of Misr, fell into disuse, and remained till the sixteenth century of Christ, in spite of the boasted learning of man, a rejected thing! The fabric of even a Ptolemy was then obliged to give way to the scheme which we will still suppose Moses to have originated; and that scheme the great Newton has contributed to uphold. As to any deduction from the use by Moses of the expressions 'the sun rose' and 'the sun set,' that would be as absurd as to conclude that the Maker of all things had a variable mind, from mention being made that He 'repented' of having made man. These are the mere colloquialisms of language: to the eye the sun *does* rise and set;

and we can think of no immaterial being without our imagination imbodying it with both form and passions. Mr. Hutchinson ought to have had nothing to fear from philosophers, beyond that, in the promulgation of their hypotheses, they are commonly too incautious whether they offend the great bulk of *unthinkers*, and too apt to forget what opinions *hinge upon* the theories they overturn. The assailed theories might nevertheless be wrong; but it requires a delicate method to remove the notions which have been allowed by time, the want of judgment, and the want of light, to seem as if based thereon. The injuries usually expected and found from this neglect, have been at all times a bar to the rapid spread of the truth in physics. Hutchinson died 1737, aged 63.

THE MOREA IN GREECE was taken by the Turks from the Venetians, 1715.

EXECUTION OF ALEXIS OF RUSSIA, 1718.—This prince became an example of perhaps the most terrible severity that ever emanated from the tribunal of the throne. He was the eldest son of Peter the Great; and not so much a dissolute youth as a true Muscovite, he opposed all his parent's plans for the civilization of the country. In this barbaric spirit, on hearing some Russian labourers lamenting the insupportable fatigues they were to undergo in the building of Petersburg, he said, 'Take courage: this city will not stand long.' When called to attend his father in a journey of 600 or 700 leagues, which the czar often made, he feigned sickness. He took violent medicines for a distemper he had not; and these, with the drinking of brandy, impaired both his health and his wits. At first he had an inclination for geometry and history, and had learned German; but he hated war and its studies; and was on that account most reproached by his father. The division between parent and child at length became so serious, that in 1718 Peter compelled Alexis to sign

a solemn act of renunciation of the throne. But it being discovered that, by a mental reservation, the prince would not be bound by his oath, Peter, forgetting he was a father, and only remembering that he was the founder of an empire which his son might overturn, or involve in its ancient barbarity, ordered a public process to be drawn up against him. An assembly was held of bishops and professors, who maintained the Jewish law, that those who curse father or mother should be put to death; David indeed (they said) had pardoned Absalom, who had rebelled against him, but Absalom was never pardoned by God. Lay judges, 124 in number, then sat on his case; and there was not one that deemed his offences less than capital. The prince died by some unknown process the day succeeding the sentence; soon after which the wheels were covered with the broken limbs of his friends. The son of Alexis, nevertheless, eventually became emperor after Catherine I., as Peter II., 1727.

DISTRESS OF THE SCOTTISH EPISCOPALIANS.—It was matter of great lamentation to the laity of the Scottish Episcopal church, to see their bishops and pastors, men not excelled by any other clergy in piety, learning, and exemplary behaviour, unable to support that decent rank in society, so necessary to give effect to their public ministrations; as was the case throughout the reign of the first George, who hated them for their Jacobite principles, as much as William had done for their high-church ones. Bishops as well as priests had nothing to rely on but the emoluments arising from their congregations; which were often so limited in number, and in such narrow circumstances, that the stipends of most of these exemplary persons did not exceed the wages of a common day-labourer. Yet were these ambassadors of their blessed Master never known to utter a complaint regarding their poverty; but they proceeded

through evil report and good report, in hunger and in thirst, faithfully and contentedly discharging all the duties of their sacred calling, and looking, as the abbots of Elizabeth's reign had been obliged to do, for brighter and happier days, which themselves were never permitted to behold—on earth.

BANDS FIRST WORN by English lawyers, 1715, and Judge Finch the first wearer.

SEPTENNIAL PARLIAMENTS, instead of triennial, fixed by the parliament's own act, 1716.

LOMBE'S SILK-THROWING MACHINE first used at Derby, 1719, whereby one waterwheel moved 26,586 wheels, and worked, in twenty-fours, 320 million yards of organzine silk thread, 1721. The silk manufacturers of Lyons at present consume two million pounds of silk annually, produced from 4292 millions of worms, each insect producing 500 yards of silk thread.

INOCULATION FOR SMALLPOX tried first on criminals, 1721.

THE BEER CALLED PORTER INVENTED.—The three beers in use in England had been long known by the respective names of twopenny, ale, and beer; when one Harwood, about 1720, produced a liquor which partook of the united flavour of the three, calling it *entire butt*, because it came from one cask. This beverage being soon in request by porters and other labouring men, it acquired the name of *porter's beer* from the populace.

PEWTER MADE FIRST OF ANTIMONY AND BISMUTH, 1724. The best pewter is a mixture of lead, tin, and brass. **BRASS** is also a mixed metal, and compounded of copper and zinc. **STEEL** is only the hardest and finest iron combined with charcoal, by a particular process. **LOADSTONE**, or magnet, is a muddy iron-ore, in which the iron is modified in such a manner, as to afford a passage to a fluid called the magnetic fluid. It is known by its property of attracting steel-filings, and is found

in Spain, Sweden and Siberia.—**THE PURE METALS** are seven : gold, silver, platina, copper, iron, lead, and tin ; quicksilver is an imperfect metal, and found mostly in the silver-mines of South America, Spain, and China. **PLATING** is a wasteful process : no less than 50,000*l.* of gold and silver are annually consumed at Birmingham alone in this art, and for ever lost as bullion.

WHITEHALL PREACHERSHIPS FOUNDED, 1721, by George I. with suitable allowances. The preachers are 24 in number, twelve from each university. They must be resident fellows of colleges during the whole time they hold the office ; to which they are appointed by the bishop of London, as dean of his majesty's chapel.

STEREOTYPE PRINTING INVENTED, 1725. Ged, a Scotsman, discovered the principle of stereotyping ; but as the common printers opposed him virulently, the art was neglected for half

a century ; when Mr. Tilloch revived it in England, Didot at Paris, and lord Stanhope brought it to perfection. It is effected by taking an impression of each page of type, when set in order by the compositor, in plaster of Paris : the plaster-mould thus formed is baked hard, and then dipped into liquid type-metal, so that a fac-simile of each page of printer's type is produced ; and this imitative page, which is, of course, one fixed mass, is capable of giving off impressions with ink, in the same manner as the moveable type of the printer. By this process, a large number of plates may be struck from one compositor's work, and any quantity of copies of a work printed in a brief space of time : books, therefore, of universal demand, such as bibles, are always stereotyped, and can, from the saving of labour in the printing-office, be sold at a lower rate than any others. *Stereos* means in Greek *immoveable*.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

THE POPEDOM.—**INNOCENT XIII.**, —Michel Angelo Conti, was elected after Clement XI., 1721, and was the eighth of his house that wore the tiara. He was a prudent and talented ruler, a person of great experience, and had address enough to recover Commachio from the emperor. He died, aged 69, 1724. **BENEDICT XIII.**, Cardinal Orsini, succeeded ; and as the dispute concerning the bull *Unigenitus* still agitated the church of France, he employed himself in calming the parties, by prevailing on the cardinal de Noailles, archbishop of Paris, to accept the bull, and by issuing another bull, called '*Pretiosus*' from its first word, in which he gave an explanation of the former, and an exposition of the doctrine of grace. John V., of Portugal, on being refused a cardinal's hat, which he had solicited for the nunzio Bichi, broke off all correspondence with Rome, and forbade

the remittance of the usual tithes and fees to the holy see. Church affairs were also in confusion in Sicily, on the old ground of the tribunal de Monarchia contending for jurisdiction with the pope ; but Benedict, who was of a somewhat too complying spirit, and highly respected for his purity of life, benevolence, and piety, put an end to both quarrels by hasty concessions. He also exerted himself to settle the controversy with the king of Sardinia respecting the right of nomination to several abbeys and other benefices in Piedmont ; and even waived the pretensions of the papal investiture in the isle of Sardinia itself, which Clement XI. had contended for. In a word, he became at length the pacificator of Europe ; and brought about that treaty of Seville, 1729, between France, Spain, England, and Holland, which settled the successions of Tuscany and Parma.

He increased the pension of the Pretender, Prince James, who resided at Bologna, approved the doctrine of the Thomists respecting grace and predestination, and died, aged 81, 1730.

RUSSIA UNDER CATHERINE I.—While Peter the Great was on his deathbed, 1725, his wife Catherine, supported by prince Menzikov, called an assembly of the nobles, to whom she stated that the emperor had named her his successor, in preference to his grandson Peter, who was a minor. After some altercation, a partial assent was given to the measure; when Menzikov was the first to shout 'Long live the empress Catherine!' and to pay his obeisance by kissing her hand; and his example was followed by the whole assembly. Catherine then presented herself at the window to the guards and people; who, while Menzikov scattered amongst them handfuls of money, shouted acclamations of 'Long live the empress!' Thus was Catherine raised to the throne by the guards, in the same manner as the Roman emperors had been by pretorian cohorts, without the appointment of the people or of the legions. Her reign may be considered as that of Menzikov, the empress having neither inclination nor abilities to direct the helm of government; and she placed the most implicit confidence in a man, who had been the original author of her good fortune, and the sole instrument of her elevation to the throne. She had risen from the lowest rank of society, being the natural daughter of a peasant-girl, and having lived as a servant in the family of the minister of Marienburg. She married a Swedish dragoon, but was compelled by his death to go again as a servant in the house of general Bauer; where prince Menzikov fell in love with her, and made her his mistress. Peter the Great, however, took her from his favourite, and married her, 1712; and in 1724 had her crowned empress. Menzikov, during her brief reign, pursued the po-

licy of his late master, and waged a successful war with the Turks; and when Catherine's death occurred, Russia had rather advanced than otherwise in the scale of European nations. Catherine could neither read nor write: her daughter, Elizabeth, usually signed her name for her, excepting in the case of public decrees, when count Osterman wrote her name beneath them. After her accession, her life was very irregular: she was extremely averse from business, would pass whole nights in the open air, and was particularly intemperate in the use of tokay wine; all which, joined to a cancer, and a dropsy, brought her to the grave, in her fortieth year, 1727.

SWEDEN UNDER ULRICA-ELEONORA, &c.—She succeeded her brother, Charles XII., 1718, being then the consort of Frederick, hereditary prince of Hesse-Cassel, and having governed the kingdom during Charles's long absence. On her accession, the States took care to make a previous stipulation for the recovery of their liberties, and obliged the princess to sign a paper to that purpose before entering on the government. Their first act was to make peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded; and they next conciliated the Russians, Danes, and Saxons, to prevent further losses by the progress of their arms. Ulrica, either intimidated by the unceremonious conduct of the diet in thus limiting the royal prerogative, or despising its ingratitude to the memory of her heroic brother, who, however he had lowered their treasury, had raised the fame of his country to an extraordinary degree, resolved on abdicating, in little more than a year after her elevation; and her husband, the prince of Cassel, was thereupon acknowledged king of Sweden, 1720. For many years affairs proceeded quietly; and that state of repose amply compensated the unambitious mercantile portion of the Swedes, by causing a demand, even from their

enemies the Muscovites, for the produce of their mines. In 1738, however, certain French emissaries formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, called 'the Hats,' and its members not only interrupted the internal quiet, but led the country into a ruinous war with Russia, by which it was deprived of the province of Finland. Since Frederick and Ulrica were without children, it became necessary to settle the succession; and this point seemed the more urgent to the States, when they saw that the nearest relative to the queen, the duke of Holstein, was heir presumptive to the Muscovite throne. The duke instantly appeared with others as a competitor for the Swedish crown; but aware of the hostility of the diet to his cause, the czarina, Elizabeth of Russia, offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, Adolphus Frederick, bishop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince, and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of George of England. Soon after this arrangement, Frederick (who had lost his consort, Ulrica, 1741), died, aged 75, 1751.

GERMANY UNDER CHARLES VI.—This prince was called to the imperial throne, 1711, by the death of his brother, Joseph I.; and he soon after gave up the contest with Philip of Anjou for the crown of Spain, by a treaty at Rastadt, 1714. In 1716 he joined the Venetians against the Turks, whom his general, prince Eugene, defeated at Peterwaradin; after which he took Belgrade and great part of Servia. In 1724 Charles issued the Pragmatic Sanction, or fundamental law, which regulates the order of succession in the family of Austria. By this law, in default of male issue, Charles's eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, was called to the inheritance of the Austrian dominions, and her children and descendants after her; and the edict was gua-

ranteed by all the German princes, and several of the other powers of Europe, with the exception of the French and Spanish Bourbons, who were always jealous of the power of Austria. The death of Augustus I. of Poland, 1733, was the signal for a fresh war on the part of the Bourbons against Austria, ostensibly on account of the Polish succession; and it has been shown that the Russian and Imperial interests prevailed, by expelling Lecziński, and placing Augustus II. on the throne. By the peace of Vienna, 1735, Charles gave up Naples and Sicily to Don Carlos, infante of Spain; while the succession of Tuscany, after the death of Gian Gastone, the last of the Medici, who was childless, was secured to Maria Theresa of Austria, and her husband, Francis of Lorraine, who in 1739 took possession of that fine country. Charles, who was the last male offspring of the house of Austria-Hapsburg, died at Vienna, aged 55, 1740, and was succeeded in his hereditary dominions, and afterwards in the empire, by his daughter, Maria Theresa, after a long and memorable war, of which hereafter.

POLAND UNDER AUGUSTUS I. RESTORED.—The battle of Pultowa, and the consequent fall of Swedish influence, 1709, recalled Augustus to the throne of Poland. The pope released him from his oath of abdication; Russia, Prussia, and Denmark, supported his pretensions; and Stanislaus, instead of offering resistance, fled into Turkey to join Charles. The first efforts of Augustus on his restoration were to drive the Swedes altogether from Germany. In conjunction with Denmark, he marched into Pomerania; but here he was repulsed by Steinbock, the Swedish general. Charles XII. soon after reappeared upon the scene; but all his heroism was less dangerous to the allies than the intrigues of his minister, the count de Goertz, who almost succeeded in subverting the existing alliances between the European states. He had nearly dis-

solved the bond between Augustus and Russia, when the death of Charles XII. occurred, 1718, and at once brought to a conclusion the struggles of war and of political intrigue. The interval between the decease of Charles and that of Augustus, fifteen years, passed away without being marked by any important incident; if we except the marriage of the eldest son of Augustus with a princess of Austria, which afforded the king an opportunity of displaying his wonted magnificence. The procession was such as no court in Europe could rival; diamonds and embroidery had never been seen in greater profusion. But Augustus was not beloved by his subjects of either kingdom, each complaining that they were sacrificed to the other. In Saxony, his prodigality (and particularly his establishment and patronage of the porcelain manufacture) was certainly favourable to the arts; but the gorgeous luxury and far-famed splendour of his person and court, rather aggravated than diminished the discontent of his people, harassed as they were in both countries by the miseries of poverty, and religious dissensions. Augustus, who assuredly possessed personal accomplishments in the highest, and mental talents in no mean degree, and whose muscular strength was such that he was able to squeeze together a common horseshoe with one hand, died, aged 63, 1733.

PERSIA UNDER MAHMUD THE AFGHAN, &c.—Mahmud, the son of Mir Vais, in a second invasion of Persia, 1722, took Isfahan, and compelled Shah Hosein to surrender both his person and his throne. The Afghan army consisted of only 30,000 men; and the Persians must have been singularly supine to allow the cruelties practised upon them during and at the close of the siege of their capital. The Seffavean dynasty was thus supplanted for a time by the 'wanderers upon the mountains,' the outcast of Israel; but the Afghan way over the whole of Persia was

brief, as Mahmud, by his cruelties, lost the affections of his new subjects long before his death; though to this day one half of the country, under the name of Kaubul, or eastern Persia, is possessed by Afghans. Mahmud died insane, 1725, and was succeeded on the throne of the Sofis by his cousin, ASHRAF. The excessive blood-thirstiness of the Afghans had by this time roused the Persians to a sense of their duty; and in five years after the accession of Ashraf, a sudden insurrection took place under Tamasp Kuli Khan, who drove out Ashraf, and the Afghans, and placed TAMASP, son of the deposed Hosein, on the throne of his fathers, 1730. The Afghans thereupon returned to their old settlements in the mountains east of Kaubul; only to return at a future day, and establish themselves permanently in Persia.

SARDINIA-SAVOY RAISED TO A KINGDOM.—The dukes of Savoy had gradually increased their territory and their influence during the long and frequent succession-wars waged by Germany; wherein they had constantly either given collateral assistance to the house of Austria, or fought immediately under its banners. At length, upon the cession of the island of Sardinia to duke Victor Amadeus of Savoy by Charles VI., 1714, a more important title than that of duke began to be desired by Amadeus; who in 1720, by consent of the emperor and pope, the only powers usually consulted on such occasions at that period, assumed the style of 'king of Sardinia.' Victor Amadeus had succeeded his father, Charles Emanuel, as duke of Savoy, 1675; and though he had married the niece of Louis XIV. he joined the German league against France, 1690. In the war which ensued, he was beaten at Staffarde by marshal de Catinat, and lost all Savoy; but in 1692 he seized upon Gap and Embrun. Another victory at Mar-seilles, obtained over him by Catinat, robbed him of all his dominions; but though he made peace in

1696, he took up arms again in 1701, encouraged by the promises of the emperor. His troops were defeated by Vendôme, and Turin, his capital was besieged by la Feuillade; but the succour of the Austrian general, prince Eugene, saved him from ruin. Peace was restored in 1713, and Amadeus acknowledged king of Sicily; but he soon after resigned his title in favour of the emperor, who supported his assumption of that of king of Sardinia, 1720, as Victor Amadeus II. He in 1730, after a reign of 55 years, abdicated in favour of his son, and died 1732, aged 66.

VENICE UNDER JOHN CORNARO.—This doge, many of whose noble ancestors had figured in the Venetian senate, and two of whom had been doges, succeeded in that high capacity 1709, but was unfortunate in his rule. Soon after the peace of Utrecht, 1713, the Venetians were again attacked by their old enemies, the Turks; who, beholding the great European powers exhausted by their late efforts, and unable to assist the oligarchy, thought this the favourable moment for recovering the Morea, which had been so lately ravished from them. The Turks obtained their object; and at the peace of Passarowitz, 1718, which terminated this unsuccessful war, the Venetians yielded up the Morea; Ahmed III. on his part, restoring to them the islands of Cerigo and Cerigotto. Those, with the islands of Corfu, Santa Maura, Zante, and Cefalonia, the remains of their dominions in the Levant, the Venetians afterwards fortified at a vast cost, as their only barriers against the Turks—which they proved until the very dissolution of the oligarchy. Cornaro died, 1722. (*See Manini.*)

IRELAND UNDER GEORGE I.—Although facilities were afforded to the commerce and industry of the Irish by queen Anne, great restrictions were gradually imposed again upon the former, through the influence and persuasion of English manufacturers; insomuch that in 1719 the oppression in this way became very serious.

The reversal by the English parliament of a judgment made by the Irish peers in the cause of *Sherlock versus Annesley*, regarding the possession of an estate, and the subsequent declaration of king George, that the British parliament had power to make laws binding upon the people of Ireland, were regarded by the Irish as equivalent to a total annihilation of their liberties; and they were still further exasperated, 1724, by the patent granted to one Wood, an Englishman, to coin halfpence and farthings for the use of Ireland. In this affair, Wood is said to have acted very dishonestly; insomuch that a shilling of the halfpence he made were scarcely worth a penny. Great quantities of this base coin were sent over; and it was used not only in change, but accounts were likely to be paid in it, so that dangerous consequences seemed ready to ensue. Among the literary attacks upon this dangerous evil, those of Dean Swift were particularly distinguished; but as in one of them he asserted, that any dependence on England, except that of being subjects to the same king, was contrary to the law of reason, nature, and nations, as well as to the law of the land, the government offered a reward of 300*l.* for the discovery of the author. Nobody could be found who would give him up, so that the printer was prosecuted in his stead; the latter, however, was unanimously acquitted by a jury of his countrymen. In 1715, apprehensions being entertained of a design upon Ireland by the partisans of the Pretender, a vote of credit to government was passed by the house of commons to a considerable amount. This laid the foundation of the national debt of that kingdom, which was quickly augmented to several hundred thousand pounds. An attempt was made during the administration of Lord Carteret (who governed Ireland till 1730) to vest the fund provided for the discharge of this debt, in the hands of his majesty and of his heirs for ever, redeemable by parlia-

ment; but the measure was opposed by the patriotic party, who insisted that it was inconsistent with the public safety, and unconstitutional, to grant it longer than from session to session.

SCOTLAND UNDER GEORGE I.—The first ministry of king George, wherein the duke of Montrose was secretary for Scotland, acted with singular impolicy and imprudence. Jealous of the tory leaders, who, with the main body of the Scottish people, objected more to the succession of a foreigner to the crown, than to a native prince, be his religious faith what it might, they persuaded the king to adopt the most severe measures against them. The consequence was that the earl of Marr, a leading tory and Jacobite, on September 6, 1714, proclaimed prince James, son of the exiled James II., at Castleton, as King James VIII. The marquis of Tullibardin in like manner proclaimed him in the northern towns and in Northumberland, and the earl of Derwentwater mustered forces to dethrone king George. Marr instantly marched to, and got possession of Perth, where the clans joined him from all quarters; and he soon found himself at the head of 12,000 men. He now resolved to make a diversion in Lothian, for which purpose he formed a detachment of 2500 of his bravest troops, under general Macintosh; and while Marr himself, by marching and countermarching along the coast, deceived the commanders of the king's ships, Macintosh sailed with his force from Crail in the night, and landing in East Lothian, marched to Edinburgh without opposition. The parliament, on hearing of the insurrection, despatched the duke of Argyle, commander-in-chief of George's forces, towards the north; and Argyle, on finding Stirling safe, marched to the defence of Edinburgh. Meanwhile the earl of Derwentwater, having united his five troops of cavalry, six imperfect regiments of Highland infantry, and five troops of English cavalry, with the

Jacobite force under Macintosh, had advanced into Westmorland, and passing through Lancaster, had got into Preston. There, on November 13, 1715, the combined forces were besieged by the English under general Wills; and, notwithstanding a brave defence of the town by the Highlanders, were, on their English allies deserting them, obliged to surrender. On the other hand, Marr had seized Inverness; and having prevailed on the clans in that district to join his standard, he despatched messengers to hasten the arrival from France of prince James, conjuring him (the 'Pretender,' as he was called by his opponents) to bring supplies of money, arms, artillery, and ammunition, and assuring him that without these all their valour would be in vain. He also engaged the Macdonalds and Macleans to make a diversion in the shires of Argyle and Dumbarton; sent detachments to seize the strong posts of Balquhidder and Monteith; made himself master of the shires of Clackmannan and Stirling beyond the Forth; fortified Perth and levied contributions; without, however, employing wanton depredation or cruelty. The presbyterians in the west, on the other hand, defended the sovereignty of king George with the utmost alacrity; troops arrived from Ireland to strengthen Argyle's army; the chiefs of the Campbells fortified Inverary; Fraser of Lovat took Inverness; Argyle had provisions and ammunition of all kinds, whilst Marr could not, without the utmost difficulty, support his army; the Pretender had not arrived, nor had any supplies, nor any accounts of the success of the southern expedition been received to gratify the anxious wishes of Marr, or to animate the spirits of his Highland followers. In the midst of these difficulties, Marr determined, in a council of war held at Perth, to send a detachment to make a feigned attempt to force a passage over the Forth, at Stirling-bridge; whilst the

main body, thus delivered from Argyle's opposition, should actually cross the stream above. If Argyle should follow the main body, then the detachment was to seize the castle of Stirling, and afterwards attack the rear of the royal army. This skilful plan, however, was betrayed to Argyle by spies in Marr's camp; and Argyle lost no time in frustrating the design. Leaving a sufficient force for the defence of Stirling, he led the rest of his army (about 5000 men) across the Forth to Dumblane, and a desperate engagement took place on Sheriff-muir, November 12, 1715. Both armies being drawn up, Marr boldly led on the attack at the head of his right wing, composed of the Macdonalds, the Macleans, the Campbells, the vassals of Breadalbane, the Ogilvies, and the Gordons; who in less than ten minutes furiously drove the left wing of the royal army from its ground, and pursued it for half a mile with great slaughter. In the mean time Argyle, with his right, consisting of six squadrons of horse, and five battalions of foot, attacked the left wing of the Jacobites; and notwithstanding their gallant defence, drove them from their ground. Ten times did they attempt to rally, as if with desperate determination to wrest the victory from him, but in vain:—he pursued them for three miles, and took possession of their waggons of bread, a part of their artillery, and a great number of colours and standards. Both sides, therefore, claimed the victory. The Hanoverians had the greater number of prisoners, but suffered a much greater loss of killed than the Jacobites. The former had to lament the fall of lord Forfar; whilst the Jacobites wept the death of lord Strathmore, and of the brave Macdonald of Clanronald. Argyle now retreated to Stirling, and Marr to Perth; where the latter was reduced to great distress from the desertion of his men, and want of ammunition and provisions. Accounts of the unhappy defeat of their friends at Preston imbibited their other ca-

lamities; the weight of which fell chiefly upon Marr, who, however, supported them with that vigour of mind for which he was distinguished, and which sufficiently upholds those who feel conscious of the justice of the cause in which they are engaged.

Argyle soon received a large reinforcement to his army, and, knowing Marr's distress, determined to press forward, and complete his triumph, at a time when the necessities of nature had already half subdued his enemy. On hearing of his approach, Marr perceiving no resource left, but either to make peace with the government for himself and his chiefs, or to go into exile, endeavoured to open a negotiation. Argyle, however, had no authority to grant terms; and just as the marquis of Huntly and lord Seaforth, in desperation, had thrown up their command and retired, Marr received information of the Pretender's arrival at Peterhead on the 22d of December. This intelligence put an end to negotiation, and roused Marr and the Jacobites to make another desperate effort. Although the prince brought none of those supplies which had been so long expected, the vessel which contained his money having been lost, yet his presence, and his manners, at once dignified and amiable, wonderfully revived the drooping spirits of his friends. On his arrival at Aberdeen, whither Marr repaired, the magistrates, episcopal clergy, and citizens congratulated him in a formal address; and having promoted Marr to a dukedom, he continued his journey to Scone, and thence made an excursion to Perth, where he reviewed his force, formed a regular council, and published six proclamations, the last fixing January 23, 1716, for his coronation. In a grand council held, he made a pathetic speech, and encouraged his followers with fresh hopes of foreign supplies. These hopes, however, were never realized: the death of Louis XIV., together with the vigilance of lord Stair, the British ambassador at Paris, baffled all the solicitations of James's friends.

The duke of Orleans, who succeeded to the regency, and the French court in general, instead of exerting themselves to aid the unfortunate heir of the Stuarts at the risk of a new war with Britain, were disposed to purchase the friendship of king George, by betraying the secrets and interests of prince James. Argyle now prepared to besiege the prince in Perth; and though Marr, with the hope of retarding his progress, burned down the villages of Blackford and Auchterarder, and destroyed all the houses, forage, corn, and provisions on the way from Dumblane to Perth, he arrived within a day's march of the town. In this desperate state of affairs, Marr advised James to make his escape; which he accordingly did to Gravelines in France, accompanied by the earl himself: whereon the various parties of Jacobites dispersed themselves amongst the Highlands and isles, engaging to resume arms for the prince when required. After the affair of Preston, the earls of Derwentwater and Nithsdale, and other captive peers, were tried by the English commons, and condemned as traitors, 1716. Kenmure and Derwentwater were executed, Nithsdale and others made their escape, and 700 prisoners, who submitted to the king's mercy, praying at the same time for transportation instead of loss of life, which had been threatened,

were *mercifully* sold as slaves to Jamaica planters. As the new French king, by the vigilance of lord Stair, gave no promise of aid to prince James, he took refuge in the papal city of Avignon; nevertheless a powerful Spanish armament, under the command of Ormond, sailed by way of Ireland for the north of Scotland to aid the Jacobite cause. This fleet, however, was shattered and dispersed by a storm off Finisterre; and only two frigates, having lord Seaforth, the marquis of Tullibardin, 400 Spanish soldiers, and 2000 stand of arms on board, arrived at Kintail. General Wightman instantly attacking this small force, and a body of Highlanders which had joined them, the Highlanders fled to the mountains, leaving alone the Spaniards, who for several hours bravely defended themselves in a ruinous castle, but were at last obliged to surrender. King George's sovereignty was now every where ostensibly acknowledged. Lord Lovat, though secretly attached to the Pretender, was gratified with a pension, and the command of a free company; and with the exception of a riot at Glasgow, 1725, occasioned by the enforcement of the malt-tax, nothing more occurred to disturb very seriously the public tranquillity, up to the period of the death of his majesty, 1727.

EMINENT PERSONS.

GIULIO ALBERONI (1664—1752), son of a gardener in the suburbs of Placentia, worked with his father till his 14th year, but afterwards being admitted to the meaner employments of the cathedral, he was ordained priest. At that time the poet Campistron, the favourite of the duke of Vendôme, was plundered in his way to Rome; and in his distress, he found a hospitable asylum in the house of the new ecclesiastic, who supplied him for his journey. The kindness was not forgotten. Campistron mentioned the generous treatment to the duke; and Alberoni soon

after gained his protection, by discovering to him, in the wars of Italy, the places where the inhabitants had concealed their corn. Obligated to fly, he followed the army; and when Vendôme was placed at the head of the military forces in Spain, his abilities were employed to negotiate between the duke and the princess of Ursino, whose intrigues had gained an ascendancy over the Spanish monarch. He behaved with such dexterity, that he became the favourite of the princess, assumed the character of agent of the duke of Parma to the court of Madrid, and employed

his influence to fix a daughter of that house on the throne of Spain. The task was dangerous ; but the princess of Ursino was soothed into compliance, with the representation that the intended queen was given to pleasure, and of a weak character, which could easily be governed. Alberoni used all possible despatch in this delicate affair, the princess of Ursino had already changed her mind, and a courier was sent to stop the negotiation ; but the minister forbade his appearance on pain of death, the treaty was signed, and Philip V. received his new queen. The consequent disgrace of the princess of Ursino made room for Alberoni ; and the wit and beauty of the queen being made subservient to the elevation of the favourite, the go-between became prime minister, and was raised by the pope to the purple. His abilities gave vigour to the nation ; and in a little time infused such a spirit of activity and enterprise, that after a lethargic repose of a century, Spain rose to the hardihood and heroic deeds of her forefathers. Madrid became the centre of negotiation and intrigue ; the cardinal formed the design of seizing Sardinia and Sicily, of replacing the Pretender on the English throne by the hands of Charles XII. and of the czar of Russia ; whilst in the East, the Turks were to arm against Germany, whose sceptre in Italy was to be broken ; and the duke of Orleans was to be deprived of the regency of France. These vast projects, however, were defeated by Orleans, who, with George I., declared war against Spain, 1719, and made it one of the conditions of peace, that the cardinal should be banished from the court. Alberoni, yielding to the storm, retired to Rome, whence he removed to Placentia, and died there, aged 88, 1752.

JOHN SOMERS (1652—1716) was son of an attorney, born at Worcester, and educated at Trinity college, Oxford, whence he entered at the Middle Temple. He first became known as one of the counsel for Pil-

kington and others, who had caused a riot in London ; and again in 1688 for his eloquent defence of the seven bishops. Obtaining a seat in the commons for Worcester, in the convention parliament of 1689, he was afterwards solicitor and attorney general, and finally lord chancellor and a peer, 1697. In 1700 he was removed from his office on a charge of high crimes ; and when he had been acquitted, he retired to private life, and became the active head of the royal society, until his projection of the Union of Scotland occasioned him to be appointed president of the council, 1708. He died of apoplexy, aged 64, 1716. Himself a learned man, lord Somers was a most liberal patron of the learned ; and in the midst of political corruption, he is represented as a patient, mild, and benevolent magistrate, uncorrupted as a statesman and lawyer, and as an orator most eloquent.

ROBERT HARLEY (1661—1724), eldest son of sir Edward, was born in Covent-garden, and educated privately at Shilton, Oxon. At the Revolution, he levied a troop of horse in favour of William ; and soon after was member for Tregony in Cornwall, and then for Radnor, which he represented till he obtained a seat in the upper house. In February, 1701-2, he was chosen speaker of the commons, and continued in that high office during that and two successive parliaments. In 1716 he was one of the commissioners to settle the Union with Scotland, and in 1710 a commissioner of the treasury, and chancellor of the exchequer. In March, that year, his life was attempted by the marquis of Guichard, a French spy ; who, when examined before the privy council, stabbed him with a penknife, for which offence he was sent to Newgate, where he died soon after. The danger thus incurred increased the popularity of the secretary ; who, on his appearance in the house, was handsomely congratulated by the speaker. In 1711 he was created earl of Oxford, and made lord high

treasurer, an office which he resigned in 1714, four days before the queen's death. In 1715 he was impeached by the commons; and after two years confinement, was tried and acquitted. He died 1724, aged 63. Harley, though abused and vilified by his rival in power, Bolingbroke, possessed great talents, and was not devoid of those amiable virtues which attend and support the good man, and which have been deservedly commemorated by the immortal pen of Pope.

HENRY SAINT JOHN (1672—1751), son of sir Henry, was born at Battersea, and educated at Eton, and Christ-church, Oxford. His early years were disgraced by an immoderate love of pleasure; but reforming, he married the daughter of sir Henry Winchcombe, obtained a seat in parliament, 1700, and laid the foundation of that eminence, which afterwards distinguished him as an orator and statesman. In 1704 he was made secretary at war; but resigned when his friend Harley was dismissed from the seals, 1707. Three years after he again shared the honours of Harley, and became secretary of state; but the part which he supported in framing the peace of Utrecht has exposed him to much censure. In 1712 he was created lord St. John, viscount Bolingbroke; but dissatisfied that he was not made an earl, he meditated a separation from Harley, and, in the attempt, ruined his own fortunes, and those of his former associate. On the accession of George I., 1714, the seals were taken from him, though he had shown himself a friend to the Hanoverian succession; and retiring to France in disgust, he became secretary to the Pretender, and prepared for the invasion of England. This was no sooner known, than he was impeached by Walpole; but while disgraced at home, his new master accused him of treachery, incapacity, and neglect. By means of lord Stair, ambassador in France, he obtained a promise of pardon from the king, 1716; which was fully granted in 1723, when he was restored to

his country. He now settled near Uxbridge, and devoted himself to literary and rural employments, and to the conversation of Pope, Swift, and other learned friends. After a second visit to France, he returned and settled at Battersea, and wrote against the ministry, till his decease at the age of 79, 1751. His political letters and essays are in an elegant and easy style, and abound with wit; but whenever he touches upon sacred subjects, he displays a disbelief in revelation. Pope, who, thinking as he did, esteemed him to admiration, has handed down Bolingbroke's name with his own, in the hope of immortalizing both, in the 'Essay on Man,' written at the viscount's request.

FRANCIS ATTERBURY (1662—1732), born at Middleton-Keynes, Bucks, was educated at Westminster, and Christ-church, Oxford; and on taking holy orders, was chosen lecturer of St. Bride's London. With the eloquence of a popular preacher, he possessed the obstinacy of a controversialist; and therefore his works, when published, drew upon him the animadversions of Hoadly, Bentley, and others. His zeal, however, in support of the rights of convocation, was rewarded by the thanks of the lower house of convocation, and by the degree of D.D. from Oxford. Preferment was now heaped upon him. Trelawney, bishop of Exeter, gave him the archdeaconry of Totness; he became chaplain to queen Anne; was in 1704 dean of Carlisle, and in 1712 of Christ-church; and in 1713 was constituted bishop of Rochester, and dean of Westminster. When George I. succeeded to the throne, he was treated with coolness; and he resented the affront by refusing to sign the declaration of the bishops, and by opposing with vigour in the parliament the measures of government; a hostile behaviour, which proved the beginning of his misfortunes. He was suspected of favouring the Pretender, arrested, and confined in the tower; a bill was brought into the commons, March, 1723, to

infect penalties on Francis, bishop of Rochester; and he was ordered to prepare his defence. The trial lasted above a week; and though supported by all the learning of the bar, and his own powerful eloquence, he was condemned to banishment, and forthwith hurried to Paris. In that capital, denied the visits of his family to the last, he died 1732, at the age of 70. Though a Jacobite on principle, there is no reason to believe that the prelate ever joined in the plots to restore the exiled family. It is certain that he was offered the see of Winchester, and a pension of 5000*l.* if he would discontinue his opposition to the measures of Walpole; and it is known that the rejection of this mean offer hastened his downfall. His private character was most amiable and exemplary; as a preacher, he was great and eloquent; and as a writer, his sermons and letters prove most decidedly that he possessed much learning as well as knowledge of divinity, and much piety as well as genius.

GEORGE BERKELEY (1674—1753), son of an English gentleman, who had been driven to Ireland for his attachment to Charles I., was born at Kite-*rin* in that country, and educated at Trinity college, Dublin, of which he became a fellow. He early displayed the powers of an inquiring mind by a treatise on arithmetic, and another on vision, in which latter he first formally distinguished the operation of the senses from the conclusions deduced from our sensations; and satisfactorily proved that the apparently intuitive connexion between sight and touch is the result of habit. In 1710 and 1713 appeared his works '*The Principles of Human Knowledge*' and '*Dialogues between Hylas and Philonous*,' in support of the hypothesis that the commonly received notion of the existence of matter is false, and that sensible objects are merely mental impressions produced by the Supreme Being, according to certain rules termed '*laws of nature*;' a doctrine based on the immutable truth,

'that the mind discovers nothing but powers or qualities'—and which it is as difficult to prove false as true, deprived as we are of data whereon to rest the investigation. In 1712 Mr. Berkeley gave much offence to the court, by publishing three sermons in favour of passive obedience and non-resistance; which caused him to be regarded as a Jacobite by the house of Hanover, with whom the doctrines were peculiarly in discredit. He soon after accompanied the bishop of Clogher's son in a tour of Europe, which occupied him four years; during which he paid a visit to the excellent Malebranche; and on his return he became the friend of Pope, Swift, Steele, and Addison. He now took his degree of D.D.; and was soon surprised at finding the celebrated '*Vanessa*,' instead of making Swift her heir, leave her fortune of 8000*l.* to be divided equally between himself and a Mr. Marshall. In 1724 he was made dean of Derry; and his next seven years were occupied in the benevolent attempt to found a college in the Bermudas, whither he sailed with a view to convert the North American savages to Christianity. Though promised, on the part of Walpole, 10,000*l.* from the government, that aid was never supplied; and Dr. Berkeley returning to Europe, scrupulously refunded all the subscriptions he had received, honourably taking the whole loss on himself. In 1732 he published '*The Minute Philosopher*,' to refute the various systems of atheism, fanaticism, and scepticism; and queen Caroline, after perusing it, obtained his promotion to the see of Cloyne, 1733. In the latter part of his life he was afflicted much with nervous colic, but cured it by drinking tar-water, which occasioned his treatise on that subject, called '*Siris*,' 1744. In 1752 he removed with his family to Oxford, to superintend the education of one of his sons; and died there highly respected. While sitting in the midst of his family at tea, one of the party

being occupied in reading aloud a sermon of bishop Sherlock's, he was found to have expired in his chair of an affection of the heart, on his daughter coming from the table to bring him his cup, Jan. 17, 1753, at the age of 79. 'To Berkeley every virtue under heaven' is one of the lines of Pope; and Atterbury, alluding to his singular display of knowledge, understanding, innocence, and humility, spoke of him as fulfilling his conception of an angelic being. As respects the ideal theory of this excellent man, it is needless to assert how wholly out of repute it is at the present day; when, we fear, had the truths of Revelation themselves first to be promulgated, ratiocination and demonstration would be brought to bear against them, because of the mysteries which are inseparable from entity, when scanned by man's finite intellect.

BENJAMIN HOADLY (1676—1761), son of the master of Norwich grammar-school, was born at Westerham, Kent, and became a fellow of Catherine-hall, Cambridge. In 1706 he attacked Atterbury's sermon at Mr. Bennet's funeral, and two years after another sermon of the same author, on the power of charity to cover sin. His 'Measures of Obedience,' on the doctrine of non-resistance, so pleased the commons, 1709, that they petitioned the queen to reward his services by some honorary preferment. He was, however, neglected, though made rector of Streatham, Surrey, till the reign of George I., when he was in 1715 raised to the see of Bangor. Party disputes, however, and the fear of his personal enemies, detained him in the metropolis, so that he never visited his bishopric. At this time his sermon on the words 'My kingdom is not of this world' produced a violent dispute, known by the name of 'the Bangorian controversy,' which, though at first it attacked the temporal power of the clergy only, soon extended to the rights of princes. In this controversy, he had for opponents Dr.

Sharpe, and the still more formidable William Law, who in some points triumphed in the general opinion over him. He afterwards opposed Hare on the nature of Prayer, and asserted that a calm, dispassionate, and rational address, was the most acceptable to heaven; whilst his opponent recommended a warm, enthusiastic zeal. From Bangor Hoadly was translated to Hereford, and afterwards to Salisbury, and lastly to Winchester, where he continued twenty-six years. He died, 1761, aged 85. As a writer, Hoadly was very rough and inelegant; and 'his periods,' says Pope, 'were of a mile.' In religion he was a latitudinarian; so that it has been wondered on what principles he continued through life to profess conformity to the church of England, as on several occasions he seemed far from strictly adhering to her,—regarding reason as the guide of the Christian, rather than the pure precepts of the Gospel. Hoadly may be considered, in fact, the founder of the *low church party* in our establishment.

RICHARD BENTLEY (1662—1742), was son of a blacksmith, and born at Oulton, near Wakefield, Yorkshire. His ancestors had possessed a valuable estate in the parish of Halifax; but the family was reduced in circumstances, owing to the misfortunes of his grandfather, who suffered in the cause of Charles I. To his mother, who was a woman of strong natural abilities, he was indebted for the first rudiments of his education, which he completed at St. John's college, Cambridge. In 1682 he became usher of a school at Spalding, and then private tutor to the son of Dr. Stillingfleet, dean of St. Paul's; and going with his pupil to Oxford, he availed himself of the treasures of the Bodleian library in the prosecution of his own studies. Becoming chaplain to (now) bishop Stillingfleet, he obtained in 1692 a stall in that prelate's cathedral, Worcester, and was the first to be chosen preacher of Boyle's lecture. The discourses

against atheism (on the Being and Power of a God), which he in that capacity delivered, have been translated into most of the continental languages; and he became in consequence librarian at St. James's. This new post gave rise to a long and celebrated controversy. Mr. Boyle had obtained a MS. from the library to complete his 'Epistles of Phalaris;' and when Bentley called for the book sooner than was expected, Boyle took offence, and a paper war arose, which drew forth on both sides the most brilliant and spirited exhibition of wit, criticism, and erudition. Amongst other pasquinades, a caricature appeared on the occasion, representing Bentley about to be thrust into the brazen bull of Phalaris, and exclaiming, 'I had rather be roasted than *Boyled*.' In 1699 Bentley, now D.D., published a work to prove that the epistles of Phalaris were not the compositions of the tyrant of Agrigentum, who lived more than five centuries before the Christian era, but were written by some sophist, under the borrowed name of Phalaris, in the declining age of Greek literature; a talented piece of argumentation, which obtained him from the crown, 1700, the mastership of Trinity college, Cambridge, with 1000*l.* a year; on which occasion he observed, with more wit than propriety, 'By the help of my God I have leaped over a wall,' alluding to the relative situations of the colleges of St. John and Trinity, which are divided only by a wall. His arbitrary government as head of Trinity, occasioned the fellows to complain to the bishop of Ely, the visitor; and they even charged him with embezzling the money of the college, an accusation which created the most virulent contentions, and which at last, after twenty years' continuance, established the innocence of the master. As divinity professor, Bentley exposed himself to the obloquy of the university; he refused to admit, without the fee of four guineas, several persons to the degree of doctor;

for which measure he was suspended, and degraded. An appeal was made to the king, and the matter was referred to the judges of the king's bench, who reversed the proceedings, and directed his honourable restoration. During these struggles, Bentley preserved his unshaken firmness of mind; and his critical editions of Terence, Homer, Phædrus, and the *Paradise Lost*, appeared at that same juncture. He died in his college, aged 80, 1742. As a scholar, Dr. Bentley has rarely been surpassed; and his pre-eminence in verbal criticism is now universally acknowledged. The best informed of his opponents respected his talents, even while they were loading him with abuse; and it must be owned that he never failed to return their attacks with interest. In his private character he was facetious, friendly, and hospitable; maintaining the dignity and magnificence of the ancient abbots, in housekeeping, at his lodge, which he caused to be handsomely repaired and decorated; and in several respects he was a benefactor to his college. By his wife (the daughter of Sir John Bernard, of Brompton), he had a daughter, who became the mother of Richard Cumberland, the celebrated dramatist.

SAMUEL CLARKE (1675—1729), was born at Norwich, of which his father was some years representative. After leaving Caius college, Cambridge, he took orders, and became chaplain to Moore, bishop of Norwich; in whose family he lived for 12 years, with all the familiarity of a friend and equal, and by whom he was presented to the living of Drayton, Norfolk. Both in 1704 and 1705 he preached the Boyle's lecture, the first course on the being and attributes of a God, and the second on natural and revealed religion; productions which excited some controversy, the author being suspected of Arianism, by arguing *a priori* for the existence of a Deity. Whiston confirmed this suspicion, by alleging that Clarke told him he had never read the Athana-

sian creed except once, and that by mistake. His letter to Dodwell 1706, on the immortality of the soul, gave rise to a long controversial dispute; but his next publication, the translation of Newton's 'Optics,' so pleased that great philosopher, that he gave him 500*l.* for his five daughters. He was at this time appointed one of queen Anne's chaplains, and rector of St. James's, Westminster; and he took his degree of D.D. at Cambridge with extraordinary *éclat*, through the superiority of his academical exercises. His book on the Trinity again caused him to be regarded as a latitudinarian, and met a severe censure from the lower house of convocation; and upon his alteration of the doxology of the singing Psalms at St. James's 1718, Robinson, bishop of London, prohibited the use of his forms. Nevertheless he was made master of Wigtown's hospital, Leicester, 1724, and continued involved in polemics until his almost sudden death of pleurisy, which seized him when on his way to preach before the judges at Serjeants'-inn, 1729, at the age of 54. Dr. Clarke was an extremely amiable and upright man in private life; but with a high intellectual claim to reasoning powers, he is blameable for attempting to measure the mysteries of revelation by the wholly inadequate laws of dialectics; forgetting the poet's wise injunction, '*Dieu t'a fait pour l'adorer, et non pour le comprendre.*'

WILLIAM WHISTON (1667—1752), born at Norton, Leicestershire, became fellow of Clare-hall, Cambridge; and taking orders, was made his chaplain by bishop Moore. His new theory of the earth, on the principles of the Newtonian philosophy, an ingenious but fanciful performance, excited both admiration and controversy. Moore, in consequence of it, gave him the living of Lowestoffe, Suffolk, 1698, and Newton in 1700 resigned to him the Lucasian chair. About this time his attachment to the church of England began to

waver; he pretended to discover that the first two centuries of the Church Catholic were truly Arian; and that afterwards doctrines less congenial to Christianity had been adopted. These notions drew upon him the displeasure of the university, which in 1710 deprived him of his chair; nevertheless he passed the remainder of his days in lecturing upon his absurd hypotheses, eventually turning baptist; and he died in penury, aged 85, 1752.

NICHOLAS SAUNDERSON (1682—1739), born at Thurlston, Yorkshire, was at twelve months old deprived of sight by the smallpox, which nevertheless did not prevent his acquiring much mathematical knowledge; and at 25 he took up his abode at Christ's college, Cambridge, though not a member of the society. His extraordinary powers procured him friends; and he was even permitted to lecture on the Newtonian philosophy before the university; and when Whiston, his chief patron, was deposed from the Lucasian chair, 1710, he was chosen to succeed him. He died through a wound in the foot, aged 57, 1739.

CONYERE MIDDLETON.—(1783—1750) was son of the rector of Hinderwell, was born at York, and became fellow of Trinity college, Cambridge. He was one of those who disputed with Dr. Bentley his right to demand the fee of four guineas for the degree of D.D.; and the new doctor's ire was still more excited against the master of Trinity, when he had received from him the contemptuous epithet of 'fiddling Conyers,' in allusion to his devotion to the violin. In 1723 Middleton was chosen librarian of Cambridge; in 1725 drew upon himself the resentment of the medical world by an attack on Dr. Mead, Spon, and others; and in 1729 offended the catholics, by publishing his '*Letters from Rome*,' declarative of an exact conformity between popery and paganism. In his letter to Dr. Waterland, who had attacked Tindal's '*Christianity*

as old as the Creation,' he spoke with such freedom of religion, and with such contempt of his antagonist, that he was severely censured as an infidel, in an answer by bishop Pearce; and when known to be the author of the obnoxious tract, he was very nearly stripped of his academical honours. In 1781 he was appointed Woodwardian professor, and in 1741 appeared his best work, 'The Life of Cicero;' the only fault of which is the adulation with which he has laden the subject of his biography. One of his last publications was a treatise 'On the Miraculous Powers supposed to have existed in the Christian Church from the earliest Ages,' which excited in the highest degree the reprehension of the clergy; and he also made an ungenerous attack upon the sermons of his quondam friend Sherlock, which had embroiled him with a host of disputants, when a hectic fever carried him to a world wherein is no strife, in his 68th year, 1750.

JOHN PRINCE (1643—1723), born at Axminster, Devon, was educated at Brazen-nose college, Oxford; and on taking orders, became curate of Biddeford. He was afterwards chosen minister of St. Martin's, Exeter, whence he removed to the vicarage of Totness, and next to that of Berry Pomeroy, where he died, 1723, aged 80. He is chiefly known by a work of much accuracy and research entitled 'The Worthies of Devon,' which has recently passed through a new edition.

PHILIP DODDRIDGE (1702—1775), son of a London oilman, having associated with dissenters, became a preacher amongst the descendants of that respectable class who quitted the Church on account of Charles II.'s act of uniformity, 1662, at Kibworth, Leicestershire, 1719. On the death of Mr. Jennings, he succeeded to his private school, which he removed from Kibworth to Northampton; and there he remained during the rest of his life, respected as a divine, successful as an instructor,

and beloved as a private man. He died 1717 at Lisbon, whither he had gone for the recovery of his health, aged 73. Dr. Doddridge is now best known by his 'Rise and Progress of religion in the Soul,' a work remarkable for its spirit of piety, and for the author's eloquent method of enforcing a regard for the momentous truths of revelation.

EDMUND HALLEY (1656—1742), was born in London, and educated at St. Paul's school, and Queen's college, Oxford. Evincing a great taste for astronomy, he distinguished himself by an attempt to correct Tycho Brahe's errors, and to ascertain the place of the fixed stars; and making a voyage to St. Helena, he formed a catalogue of those bodies which never appear above the horizon of Greenwich or Dantzic. After two years' residence he returned in 1678 to England, and for his labours he was honoured with the degree of M. A. at Oxford, by royal mandamus. During a continental visit, he observed that remarkable comet which soon after engaged the attention of all other European philosophers; and after registering his opinions upon it in the Paris observatory, he published in England his theory of the variation of the magnetic compass, 1683. In 1698 he obtained from king William the appointment of a vessel, to enable him to improve his philosophical observations on the variations of the needle; and after penetrating towards the south pole till the ice stopped his progress, he returned, 1700. In a third voyage he examined the course of the tides in the English channel, and accurately ascertained the latitude and longitude of each headland, 1702. He was subsequently engaged by the emperor of Germany to examine the coast of Dalmatia; and was on his return made successively Savilian professor of geometry at Oxford, an honorary LL.D., a fellow of the royal society, astronomer-royal at Greenwich after Flamstead, and, by queen Caroline's favour, a half-pay captain. He died, aged 86, 1742. Dr. Halley, from observing a

transit of mercury over the sun's disc at St. Helena, promulgated his method of determining the parallaxes of the planets; by which the important discovery of the distances of the planets from each other, and from the sun, was effected. Halley was also the first to predict the return of a comet, deciding that such bodies were only planets obeying the law of an elliptic orbit.—(*See Halley's Comet.*) It is to be lamented, however, that Halley was a gross infidel; and that he reaped no other advantage from his study of physics, than the conviction that he was born with intellects doubly superior to the common order of men.

HANS SLOANE (1662—1752) was born at Killeleagh, in Ireland, of respectable parents; and early displaying an inquisitive mind, he obtained leave to visit London; where, by attending the various lectures, he laid the foundation of his future eminence. After a visit to Paris and the south of France, he was elected into the Royal Society, and the College of Physicians, and accompanied as physician the duke of Albemarle, governor of Jamaica. Though only fifteen months in the island, he made a large collection of plants; and on his return he was made physician to Christ's Hospital, and secretary to the Royal Society. At the accession of George I. he was made a baronet, president of the College of Physicians, and successor to Newton as president of the Royal Society. He died at Chelsea, where he had bought much property which still bears his name, aged 90, 1752; bequeathing his cabinet of curiosities (now in the British Museum) to the public for £20,000, about half its supposed value.

GODFREY KNELLER (1648—1723), born at Lubec, was educated at Leyden for the army; but a natural genius for design led him to study under Rembrandt, and he was, on coming to England, warmly patronised as a painter by Charles II. William III. knighted him, and made him a gentleman of his privy-cham-

ber; and George I. created him a baronet. He was also made a noble and knight of the holy Roman empire by Leopold, and received the degree of LL.D. from Oxford. His likenesses were always considered very accurate; save that he constantly gave an air of gentility, whether or not it could be traced in his originals: his colouring was judicious, and remarkably steady and enduring. Having acquired a handsome fortune, he lived in great splendour at his house at Whitton, near Hampton-court; and though accused of personal vanity, he was ever a most hospitable friend, and died much lamented, aged 75, 1723.

JOHN VANBURGH (1671—1726) was of a Flemish family, which, on account of Alva's severity, took refuge in England, where John was born. He at first entered the army, but relinquished it for the study of architecture, and became known to the public, 1697, by a comedy called 'The Relapse.' The popular play of 'The Provoked Wife' followed; and in 1707 'The Confederacy,' the most witty as well as the most licentious of his productions. 'The Provoked Husband,' which he left imperfect at his death, was completed by Colley Cibber; and it still retains its attraction, as an amusing, though exaggerated, picture of obsolete manners and characters. Meanwhile Vanburgh rose as an architect; and was employed by the government to build Blenheim-house for the duke of Marlborough; which, with Howard Castle, and the Mansion-house, London, though all somewhat ponderous, may be taken as specimens of his taste and skill. He was made clercieux in the herald's college, 1704, was in 1714 knighted by George II.; and he died comptroller of the board of works, aged 55, 1726.

THOMAS GUY (1644—1724), son of a lighterman of Southwark, where he was born, became a bookseller in Cornhill; and on being prohibited printing bibles in Holland for importation to England, contracted with

the university of Oxford for its privilege of sole publication of the Scriptures, by which he soon amassed a large fortune. His property, however, was yet further augmented by purchasing seamen's tickets and South-sea stock, 1720; and having resolved to live a bachelor, he became a great benefactor to St. Thomas's hospital, Southwark. After erecting an almshouse at Tamworth, which he represented in parliament, he formed the noble design of erecting that stately pile which bears the name of 'Guy's hospital,' and which he effected at a cost of 19,000*l.* and endowed with 220,000*l.* Though thus munificent to the world, Mr. Guy was singularly parsimonious at home, it being his constant practice to dine on his shop counter (for he continued a bookseller), with an old newspaper for a table-cloth; and his apparel was usually so mean, that the alms of the humane were not unfrequently pressed upon him, as upon a half-starved mendicant; the term of 'an old Guy' being to this day a cockney reproach, originating in his appearance. He died, aged 80, 1724.

JOHN RADCLIFFE (1650—1714), born at Wakefield, Yorks, entered at University college, Oxford, and passed thence to Lincoln college, where he obtained a fellowship. On settling as a physician in London, he rapidly rose to eminence, and attended the princess Anne of Denmark and king William. When however called to the latter, 1699, his rough address, which was his great vice, gave necessarily great offence. The king, showing him his swollen ankles, asked him his opinion: 'I would not,' answered the blunt physician, 'have your majesty's two legs for your three kingdoms.' On the last illness of queen Anne, it is said that he refused to visit her, though requested by the privy-council; but it seems by his own statement that he was never solicited to attend, and that his unpopularity, and the attempts to censure him in the commons, were totally unmerited. He died 1714,

aged 64, three months after the queen; and it is said that the public odium heaped upon him, in consequence of the charge of disrespect towards his sovereign, hastened his death. He was buried in St. Mary's church, Oxford, with great solemnity. In his character Radcliffe was violent, fickle, and avaricious. The bulk of the large fortune he had accumulated, he left to charitable purposes; and besides creating two travelling fellowships in University college, Oxford, he left provision for the erecting of an infirmary, and of a splendid library (the latter of which cost 40,000*l.*) in his favourite city, both which still bear his name.

RICHARD MEAD (1678—1754), son of the rector of Stepney, Middlesex, who turned dissenter, was born at Stepney, and sent to study medicine under Grævius at Leyden. He eventually settled in Austin-friars, London, and was one of queen Anne's physicians in her last illness. Being consulted by government upon the best means of preventing the importation of the plague, which raged at Marseilles, he published his discourse on pestilential contagion, which in one year passed through seven editions. In 1727 he was physician to George II., and had the satisfaction of seeing in the same situation his two sons-in-law, Drs. Wilmot and Nichols. He died 1754, aged 81. Dr. Mead attained so much celebrity after the decease of his chief patron, Radcliffe, that he made in one year (what was then thought enormous) 7000*l.* by his practice. With the most urbane manners, he united the greatest liberality; and he would never receive a fee from any clergyman except one, who disputed with him on the propriety of his prescriptions. 'Alive by miracle, or, what is next, alive by Mead,' is one of Pope's laudatory lines, on occasion of his own cure.

HERMAN BOERHAAVE (1668—1788), son of a divine, was born at Voerhooft, in Holland, and after completing his education in the univer-

sity of Leyden, devoted himself to medicine. He ultimately attained the highest rank in his profession; and on the death of Dr. Hatten, 1705, he succeeded to the chair of medicine at Leyden, and raised the credit of that university extraordinarily, as a school of physic. Students from all parts of Europe flocked thither, particularly from England and Germany; and his theories obtained such ascendancy, that scarcely any other were heard of for more than half a century. In 1714, he was chosen rector of the university; and he was now not only consulted by patients from neighbouring countries, but his fame brought him applications from the European settlements in the East Indies. It is even related that a Chinese mandarin, wishing for his advice, wrote a letter, addressed 'To the illustrious Boerhaave, physician in Europe,' which was safely delivered. He died in retirement, after some years devoted to the cultivation of a botanical garden near Leyden, aged 70, 1738. Though the principles upon which Boerhaave based his theory of medicine have been well-nigh exploded, he has the merit of having advanced hypotheses, which obtained more generally than any other, since the time of Galen. His errors were chiefly an attempt to reason on the nature of living bodies, from data derived from the properties of inanimate subjects; and he lays too much stress on supposed changes in the state of the animal fluids. In chemistry, he only methodized and improved the previously-discovered elements of the science; but it must be said to his credit, that he banished from his pages the mystical jargon of the alchymists, and treated his subject with extreme perspicuity and elegance.

ALAIN RENE LESAGE (1668—1747), born at Sarzeau in Brittany, was son of a lawyer; and after studying at the college of jesuits at Vannes, obtained occupation at the house of an advocate at Paris, where his wit, and taste for elegant litera-

ture, obtained him friends. This was the more necessary, as his guardian (now his father was dead) had dissipated his little fortune; inso-much that he had never been articleed to his master. Although admitted an advocate of parliament, he devoted most of his time to Spanish literature, and produced those admirable translations, or imitations of Castilian dramas and romances, which have given him an undying name. *Le Diable Boiteux*, *Gil Blas*, and *Les Aventures de Gusman d'Alfarache*, are of these the best known; and *Gil Blas* will perhaps ever continue the most popular of the three. Notwithstanding his talents, and the success of his numerous compositions, Lesage, owing to a carelessness and liberality of disposition, was never much above need; and he so died, aged 79, 1747.

FRANCESCO GEMINIANI (1666—1762), born at Lucca, began a musical education under Lonati of Milan, a celebrated violinist, better known by the name of *Il Gobbo*; afterwards studied counterpoint under Scarlatti at Rome; and finally became a pupil of Corelli. Although a perfect master of the instrument, he was considered so wild and unsteady a timist, that he put the whole orchestra into confusion more than once at Naples, while acting as leader of the band; and he was therefore obliged to retire from that situation. In 1714 he came to London, and supported himself for many years by teaching, and by playing his own compositions at the concerts of the nobility; but while on a visit to Dublin, a treacherous female-servant stole from his desk the manuscript of a treatise on music which had cost him vast labour; and the vexation produced a fever, of which he soon after died there, at the great age of 96, 1762. Geminiani's 'Twelve Solos' are very clever productions, and form a highly useful, though somewhat difficult practice for the violinist. His 'Enchanted Forest,' wherein, by mere sound, and without the aid of words,

he attempted to express the episode in book thirteen of the 'Gerusalemme' of Tasso, though fanciful, is also a very skilful production.

JEAN BAPTISTE MASSILLON (1663—1742), born at Hières, was of the congregation of the Oratoire, and distinguished himself so much at Vienne by his oration on the archbishop of that city, that he was called to Paris, where his eloquence astonished crowded audiences. His mode of preaching was peculiarly his own; interesting, natural, and simple, his appeals were directed to the heart, and succeeded far above the efforts of all competitors. The court heard him with applause, and Louis XIV. paid him this sincere compliment:—'Father, when I hear other preachers, I go away pleased with them; but when I hear you, I go away displeased with myself.' On one occasion, when discoursing of the small number of the elect, his eloquence was so awfully striking, that an involuntary murmur of applause arose in the congregation, and assisted the preacher more forcibly to convey his pathetic appeal. He was in 1717 appointed bishop of Clermont; and died, aged 79, 1742. His published sermons are not only models of eloquence, but are distinguished for their sound divinity, and their valuable scriptural elucidation.

RENE DE VERTOT (1655—1735) was born of a good family in Normandy, and entered among the Capuchins. The austerities, however, of a monastic life affected his health, and he quitted his high office of prior to become a secular clergyman 1701; from which period until his death, aged 80, 1735, he resided at Paris, respected as a divine, and much read as an historian. His chief works are histories of the revolutions of Rome, Portugal, and Sweden, a history of the Brétons, and a history of Malta—a series which have earned him, amongst his nation, the title of the modern Quintus Curtius. He was, however, too little a labourer, and too little fond of research, to be

a correct historian; and trusting to his memory a good deal, and to his imagination more, he is worthy of no praise beyond his style, which is very lively and elegant, and his sentiments, which are generally those of a man of reflection and virtue.

JEAN BAPTISTE ROUSSEAU (1670—1741), a French lyric poet of eminence, was the son of a shoemaker of Paris; and getting into the service of marshal Tallard, accompanied him in his embassy to England. Having been successful with a dramatic work, he was called to appear on the stage at Paris, to receive the congratulations of the audience; but such was the heartless meanness of the poet, that he, on that occasion, attempted to disown his aged father, who had come forward with the crowd to express his joy at the wretch's success. (Too every-day a result of the modern march of intellect!) Though the odes of Rousseau are acknowledged to stand at the head of that class of French poetry, the author never profited by his talents; and quarrelling with and satirizing every one who did not admit and allow for his genius, he was driven, first into Switzerland, and then to Brussels, where he died, in comparative poverty, aged 71, 1741.

JOSEPH MILLER (1684—1738), a witty low comedian, whose name has passed into a proverb to express 'a pun.' When Congreve's plays were in fashion, he took the characters of Sir Joseph Wittol in the 'Old Bachelor,' Ben in 'Love for Love,' and Teague in the 'Committee,' with all the eclat necessary to establish his fame; but it was at his suppers that he is said peculiarly to have shone, when, in his private character of chairman of the feast, that repartee display began, which, as in the case of Hercules and his feats of strength, has caused every subsequent effusion of the sort to be solemnly placed to his account. Stephen Duck, the self-taught Wiltshire poet, wrote witty Joe's epitaph, when he was sure he had died, which event occurred 1738,

in his 55th year. There is fair evidence to show that the first work professing to be a collection of the jests of Joe Miller, was compiled by one John Mottley. As respects the *effect* of witty sayings (which is, we presume, the main object of the punster), we question whether our American brethren do not excel us. They have a method of association, which by the sudden contact of totally opposed notions, occasions a species of explosion in a mind that is at all sensible to 'the ludicrous;' and it is no small praise to say of their system that it is capable of producing much innocent mirth, without in any way causing wisdom to be laid asleep. Some of the puns attributed to Joe Miller are really too good to laugh at, thus defeating the object in view; and this compliment must be our excuse for preferring the plan of our more successful brother Jonathan.

ROBERT CLAYTON (1695—1758), born in Dublin, was son of the dean of Kildare. He was educated at Westminster school, and Trinity college, Dublin; and having been introduced by Dr. Clarke to Queen Caroline, her majesty made him bishop of Killaloe, and he subsequently held respectively the sees of Cork and Clogher. He was a low-churchman, and nearly an Arian; and having proposed, in the Irish lords, that the Athanasian and Nicene creeds should be expunged from the liturgy of the church of Ireland, and further displayed his heterodox notions in his 'Vindication of the Old and New Testaments,' measures were set on foot to degrade him. Before the proceedings, however, commenced, a nervous fit, occasioned by agitation of mind, put a period to the bishop's existence, at the age of 63, 1758.

CONTEMPORARIES.—JOHN, BARON GOERTZ, born in Holstein, gained by his valour the good opinion of Charles XII. of Sweden, who placed him at the head of the finances. Though a highly talented man, and respected as such, he caused great discontent by

raising taxes to support the last war of Charles with Norway; and no sooner was the news of his master's death at Frederickshall received at Stockholm, than Goertz was accused of treason, tried, and soon after beheaded, 1719. DAVID CONSTANT, a learned professor of Lausanne, who died at the age of 95, 1733, after having passed a long life of literary labour. He was author of a celebrated 'Collection of Letters of the Popes,' and published commentaries on Florus, Cicero, and Erasmus. JOHN ARBUTHNOT, son of a Scottish divine, was born at Arbuthnot, near Montrose, and educated at the university of Aberdeen. Settling in London as a physician, he was consulted, during an illness, by the other medical attendants of Prince George of Denmark; and his advice leading to a cure, he was appointed physician to queen Anne, 1709. He now formed an intimacy with Swift, Pope, and the other wits of the day; who encouraged him to attack the degenerate taste and abuse of learning then prevalent, which he did in the Cervantic style, in his 'Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus.' He died, respected for his piety and other virtues, aged 60, 1735. THOMAS CHUBB, born near Salisbury, became a tallowchandler in that city. Being a man of natural genius, he applied vigorously in his leisure hours to mathematics first, and then to divinity; and when the controversy between Clarke and Waterland arose concerning the Trinity, he wrote 'The Supremacy of the Fathers asserted,' and was instantly noticed by the learned. At length Sir Joseph Jekyll induced him to become his confidential servant; and at his house he was long in the habit of waiting at table, out of livery. Sir Joseph would have advanced him; but he preferred returning to Salisbury, and aiding his nephew in the business he had formerly resigned. He died, aged 64, 1747; and after that event, was published, as his, a work denying the truth both of the Mosaic and Christian dispensations! JOHN FRÆIND, born at Croton, Northamp-

tonshire, was educated at Westminster and Christ-church, Oxford; and early appeared as an annotator on Demosthenes and Ovid. He adopted physic as his profession, accompanied lord Peterborough in his Spanish expedition, then visited Italy, and on his return wrote a vindication of the earl's conduct as a general in Valencia. After going with Ormond to Flanders as his physician, he was chosen member for Launceston; but his speeches in the house seeming to connect him with the plot of bishop Atterbury, he was sent for six months to the Tower, in which confinement he planned his great work 'the History of Physic.' He died, aged 51, 1728. His brother Robert was head of Westminster-school after Busby, edited 'Cicero de Oratore,' and died 1754. PIETRO GIANNONE, born in Apulia, adopted the legal profession, and became celebrated by writing a 'History of Naples;' his remarks in which concerning the origin of the papal power gave such offence at Rome, that he was glad to find a refuge even in a Piedmontese prison, the king of Sardinia protecting him therein from further punishment. He died in exile, aged 72, 1748. ETIENNE GEOFFROI, born in Paris, became professor of chemistry and of medicine there, travelled over Europe, and published a valuable pharmacopœia with the title of 'Le Code Médicamentaire,' which became the basis of similar compilations throughout the continent and in England. Geoffroi died, aged 59, 1731. THOMAS HEARNE, born at White Waltham, Berks, was son of the parish clerk of that place, and by the aid of Mr. Cherry of Shottesbrooke, was sent to Edmund-hall, Oxford. In 1699, his friends wished him to be ordained to go as a missionary to Maryland; but, although he took holy orders, he preferred the learned retirement of his university, and as an indefatigable antiquary, began researches into the valuable stores of the Bodleian. He was for some years a librarian of that noble collection, and was, in 1715,

appointed archetypographus of Oxford, and squire bedell of the civil law. These offices, however, he soon after resigned, as he refused to take the oaths to the house of Hanover; and though preferment was frequently offered him, he declined it on the same scruples of conscience. He was a man of great cheerfulness, and of steady piety; and there are among his papers various prayers of thanksgiving to the Giver of all good, written on occasions when he had got to the object of respective researches of difficulty. He published Leland's Itinerary, Camden's Annales, and several original antiquarian works, and died at Oxford, aged 55, 1735. JOHN LECLERC, born at Geneva, was the son of a Greek professor, and took holy orders. His tenets were Arminian, and the air of Geneva ill agreed with such a profession: he therefore removed to Paris, and then visited England, 1682, and became known to the bishops and leading men of the nation. He, however, abominated episcopacy, in the spirit of a presbyterian; and his name was soon in surprising ill favour in Britain. As a critical scholar and philosopher he was more successful; and the learned world has still to thank him for his 'Ars Critica,' a work containing the best rules for distinguishing spurious from authentic productions in the study of ancient authors. After preaching at the Savoy, London, for some time, Le Clerc removed to Amsterdam, 1683, where he was elected professor of Hebrew, philosophy, and belles lettres, at the Remonstrant college; in which post he died, aged 76, 1736. Le Clerc was one of those theologians who contended for the right of private judgment in its most extended sense, and was, therefore, no favourite with any established church. He was even suspected of Socinian notions; and his attempts to account for the scriptural miracles in a natural way, brought him in collision with numerous English divines. His writings, however, are valuable, and cannot be ne-

glected by the theological student, however debased they are by dogmatism and controversial acrimony. His brother *Daniel* (1652—1728) was a highly celebrated physician at Geneva, and author of a history of medicine of great labour and research, and of the most comprehensive work on 'intestinal worms' ever written. CHARLES, BARON DE MONTESQUIEU, born at Brede, near Bordeaux, first displayed the strong powers of his mind in his 'Persian Letters,' wherein he lashed the follies and vices of his nation, which occasioned Fleury to do all in his power to keep him out of the French academy. In 1722 his eloquent remonstrances against some taxes, occasioned their repeal; after which the continued opposition of the government to him, induced his travelling over the continent to collect information for a work he had in view, and which eventually appeared, 1748, with the title of 'Esprit des Lois.' For two years he resided in England, where the queen noticed him a great deal; and on his quitting our shores he observed, 'that England was the country where to think, and France where to live.' This talented philosopher died, aged 66, 1755. His 'Spirit of Laws' discusses at large the nature of different forms of government from which laws emanate, or to which they ought to be adapted; and though laden with errors of theory, and statements devoid of truth, it long had a vast reputation, and that chiefly through its wit and *naïveté* of remark. As the author, both in this work and the 'Persian Letters,' had exhibited much freedom on the subject of religion, the Sorbonne began, but did not pursue, an inquiry into his tenets; and it is said that some Jesuits induced him, on his deathbed, to retract his deistical opinions. In private life Montesquieu was an amiable and worthy man, though somewhat parsimonious. BERNARD DE MONTFAUCON, was of noble descent, and born at the castle of Soulage in Languedoc, 1655. He quitted the army for a

monastery, 1675, entering the Benedictine order; and he thenceforth devoted himself to literature, giving to the world critical editions of the Greek Fathers, and his most valuable work 'L'Antiquité expliquée et représentée en Figures,' forming a complete treasury of classical archæology, in 15 folio volumes. Montfaucon was handsomely treated by pope Innocent XII. and the cardinals, on his visiting Rome, 1698; and on his return to Paris, 1701, he published 'Diarium Italicum,' an interesting account of his journey. He died in the abbey of St. Germain, aged 87, 1741. RENE DE REAUMUR, born at Rochelle, was son of a barrister of that city, and after studying under the Jesuits of Poitiers, devoted himself, with an ample fortune, to the observation of nature. Through the interest of his relative, the president Henault, he was elected a member of the academy of sciences at Paris, 1708; and from that period he continued, during half a century, one of the most active and useful members of the association. He made important observations on the formation of pearls; discovered in Languedoc mines of the turquoise, a substance which he showed to be the fossil teeth of the mastodon; and pointed out the best methods for converting iron into steel. His improved thermometer, made known 1731; his enamelled porcelain, 1739; his experiments concerning artificial incubation in Egypt; and his excellent work on insects—all tend to prove him one of the most talented philosophers ever produced by France. He died, aged 74, 1757. ANTOINE WATTEAU, born at Valenciennes of humble parents, became scene-painter to the Parisian opera; and a picture he executed having gained the prize at the academy, Louis XV. gave him a pension to enable him to visit Rome, and study the great masters. He soon painted in a style which attracted, even in the capitol, extraordinary notice to his figures and groupings; but his health suddenly gave way,

and, after passing a year in England on his way from Italy, he returned to Paris only to die, aged 37, 1721. JOHN WOODWARD, born in Derbyshire, became apprentice to a London linendraper, but contrived, during his leisure hours, to make such progress in medical science, under the direction of Dr. Peter Barwick, that, in 1692, he was elected to the medical professorship at Gresham college, and in 1695 was constituted M.D. by archbishop Tenison. In the latter year appeared his 'Essay towards a Natural History of the Earth, with an account of the effect of the Universal Deluge thereon;' and though, from the scanty materials of his day, it is a meagre system of cosmology, it merits the praise of basing theory, for the first time, on actual observation, scorning the hypothetical vagaries of previous geologists. Dr. Woodward died, aged 63, 1728; bequeathing a sum to found a lectureship of 150*l.* a-year at Cambridge, the chair of which was first held by Conyers Middleton. DEMETRIUS CANTEMIR, a Tartar of illustrious birth, expected to succeed his father as governor of Moldavia, under the Turks; but he was supplanted, and when sent to defend the province for the sultan against the Russians, he betrayed it to the czar Peter. Retiring hereupon to the Ukraine, he devoted himself to literature, and wrote several works in Latin, of which 'The History of the Ottoman Empire in Russia' is the best. He died,

aged 50, 1723; and his son Antiochus was long a diplomatic person in the Russian court, which he civilized by his poetical and general taste. The latter died, aged 34, 1744. JONATHAN WILD (who may be called 'the English historical highwayman,' the gravest biographers and annalists having found it necessary to mention him) was originally a thief-taker; and after a career of astonishing villany and success, ended his days by the hangman at Tyburn, in his forty-second year, 1725.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1703, Ahmed III. POPES.—1700, Clement XI.; 1721, Innocent XIII.; 1724, Benedict XIII. FRANCE.—1643, Louis XIV.; 1715, Louis XV. RUSSIA.—1696, Peter I.; 1725, Catherine I.; 1727, Peter II. SWEDEN.—1697, Charles XII.; 1718, Ulrica-Eleonora; 1720, Frederick of Hesse-Cassel. DENMARK AND NORWAY.—1699, Frederick IV. PORTUGAL.—1705, John V. SPAIN.—1700, Philip V.; 1724, Louis I. and Philip V. GERMANY.—1711, Charles VI. POLAND.—1709, Augustus I. restored. PRUSSIA.—1713, Frederick William I. NETHERLANDS.—1711, William IV. SARDINIA.—1720, Victor Amadeus II. DELHI.—1713, Firokhser; 1717, Rafia I. and II.; 1718, Mohammed. CHINA.—1661, Kang-hi 1723, Yung-ching. HUNGARY.—1712, Charles VI., Emperor. PERSIA.—1694, Hosein Mirza; 1722, Mahmud the Afghan; 1725, Ashraf.

REIGN CLXXII.

GEORGE II., KING OF ENGLAND.

1727 TO 1760—33 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—George II., the son of George I., was born at Hanover, 1683, and like his father, constantly preferred the interests of his German state to those of his more important inheritance. He had married before his accession, 1704, Caroline, princess of Brandenburg-Anspach, an amiable woman, who displayed great dignity as queen of England, and was always the warm patron of the learned, and the instant friend of the needy. She died 1737, aged fifty-four, universally regretted. By her the king had

eight children ; 1. Frederick Lewis, prince of Wales, who died before his father, and whose son, George III., succeeded to the throne ; 2. George, who died young ; 3. William, duke of Cumberland, the conqueror of the Pretender, died a bachelor, 1765 ; 4. Anne, princess-royal, married to Charles, prince of Orange ; 5. Amelia, died unmarried, 1786 ; 6. Caroline, died unmarried, 1757 ; 7. Mary, married Frederick, prince of Hesse-Cassel ; and 8. Louisa, the wife of Frederick V. of Denmark. George II. was short and well shapen, with very prominent eyes, a high nose, and a fair complexion. He was prone to anger, but easily appeased ; otherwise he was moderate and humane ; in his mode of living, temperate and regular. He was fond of pomp and military parade, and personally brave. In fact he loved war as a soldier, and corresponded on the subject with some of the greatest military characters of the continent. He was popular throughout his reign, and was very generally and sincerely regretted at his decease.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—George II. succeeded his father 1727, at the mature age of forty-four, when the two parties into which the nation had so long been divided, had changed their names from whig and tory to the *court* and *country* parties. Throughout the greatest portion of this reign there seem to have been two grand objects of controversy ; namely, the national debt (thirty millions), and the number of forces to be kept in pay. The court party constantly found excuses, notwithstanding a profound and continued peace, to increase the one and not diminish the other, and were constantly victorious. The next thing worthy of notice is the charitable corporation fraud, 1731, whereby a society of men, under the plea of raising a capital of 23,000*l.*, to lend money at legal interest to the poor upon small pledges, increased that capital to 600,000*l.*, and then decamped with the money. No less than six members of parliament, besides many persons of higher rank, were found to be concerned in this act of fraud ; and it was long before the public forgot the circumstance. In 1732 Walpole formed a scheme to fix a general excise, by commencing with tobacco, which was to pay no customs on importation, but fourpence per pound when sold out of the government warehouses, where it was ordered to be placed on arrival. So violent was the popular ferment, that the commons threw out the bill, alarmed at the threats of the crowds which daily beset the house ; the minister was burned in effigy, and a new parliament called. Walpole having succeeded, in this new assembly, in his design to drive out the country party, passed several useful laws to gain popularity, but did not again propose the excise scheme (though most of the provisions of his bill have been subsequently adopted) ; and then declared war with Spain, 1739.

Ever since the treaty of Utrecht, the Spaniards had insulted the commerce of England ; and as a right of cutting logwood in the bay of Campeachy in South America, gave the British frequent opportunities of pushing in contraband commodities upon that continent, the Spaniards, in revenge, declared no more logwood should be cut. Hostilities thereupon commencing, the British admiral Vernon destroyed the fortifications of Porto Bello ; while Anson, after a voyage of three years' duration, in which he circumnavigated the globe, returned laden with the spoils of a Spanish galleon and other prizes, valued at 600,000*l.*, though he lost a complete fleet in the stormy South Seas. But the attack of the English on Carthagea failed, and after great loss, they re-embarked their troops, and returned home, 1741 ; whereupon the popular indignation forced Walpole to resign, and he was removed to the house of peers as earl of Orford.

No less than 407 British ships having been captured in the contest with Spain, the nation became disgusted with naval affairs ; and at once entered into the quarrels that were beginning on the continent of Europe. Au-

gustus I. of Poland had died 1733, and Stanislaus, who had been nominated by Charles XII., had been supported by the French in his attempt upon the throne, but was put down by the Austrians and Russians. The emperor of Germany dying in 1740, the French, regardless of treaties, particularly of the Pragmatic Sanction, caused the elector of Bavaria to be crowned emperor, with the title of Charles VII.; and the Prussians aided them on this occasion. England, therefore, resolved to stand forth in Maria Theresa's defence; and an army was accordingly sent to the continent, and strengthened by a body of Hanoverians in British pay. George II. himself shared in the campaign, although its conduct was intrusted to the earl of Stair; and it was attempted to effect a junction with Maria Theresa's general, prince Charles of Lorraine, in order to crush the French at a blow. But near the village of Dettingen, June 15, 1743, the French contrived to surround the English and Hanoverians, and, had they acted without precipitation, would have made king and all prisoners. Their impetuosity, however, saved Britain this disgrace, and they were ultimately driven back across the Mayne, with a loss of 500 men; a victory which was long celebrated in England, and to commemorate which the well-known *Te Deum* of Handel was composed.

The French were about to invade England after this defeat, with the Pretender at their head, when admiral Norris dispersed their fleet. They, however, appeared with 120,000 men in the Netherlands, under count Saxe; and the allies, amongst whom were the English under the duke of Cumberland, were defeated by them at the bloody battle of Fontenoy, 1744, with the loss of 12,000 men. Holland and Russia being now on the side of Maria Theresa, the nominal emperor, Charles VII., was obliged to fly, 1745; and, stripped even of Bavaria, his inheritance, he passed henceforward a life of obscurity at Frankfort. It was at this juncture that Charles Edward, the young Pretender, son of the Pretender prince James, landed in Scotland with a few followers, and a ship-load of arms, 1745; and being joined by the Highlanders of certain clans, entered Edinburgh, and routed Sir John Cope and the English forces at Preston-pans, September 21. Had the prince marched at once into England, the consequences would probably have been serious to the party in power; but he remained in Edinburgh, waiting for succours which had been promised him, but which never arrived; so that the season of action was lost. Though general Wade could not get his 6000 Dutch troops to act against Charles Edward, the duke of Cumberland soon arrived from Flanders with a detachment of well-disciplined dragoons and infantry; and the prince, having been compelled by the quarrels amongst his Highland generals to retreat to Edinburgh, after advancing within 100 miles of London, found himself opposed by 14,000 well-supplied and veteran soldiers. An engagement ensued at Culloden, near Inverness, April 16, 1746, in which the Pretender's troops were defeated with great slaughter, and himself compelled to fly. The duke of Cumberland behaved on this occasion with the greatest cruelty, refusing quarter to the wounded, the unarmed, and the defenceless; and many were slain who had only been spectators of the combat, the soldiers themselves doing the office of the common executioner. Thirty-seven officers, adherents of the Pretender, were executed as traitors at Kennington-common, Carlisle, and York, respectively; and the earl of Kilmarnock, lord Balmerino, and lord Lovat, were put to death with the usual solemn ceremonial. The Highlanders of Scotland were commanded henceforth to wear clothes of the common fashion, laying aside their military dress and arms; and the power of their chieftains was wholly destroyed, every man being granted a participation in the common liberty, to the abolition of clanship for ever. Prince Charles Edward, meanwhile,

with a price of 30,000*l.* upon his head, wandered six months in the frightful wilds of Glengary ; and, like his great-uncle, Charles II., was eventually, by the aid of a few faithful adherents, put safely on shore in France. The duke of Cumberland returned after the battle of Culloden to Flanders, to take the command of an army to which he was by no means equal. The French recovered every fortress which the duke of Marlborough had taken ; and had not admirals Anson, Warren, and Hawke made some captures of French ships, the English affairs would have been in a desperate state. At length Louis, tired of the contest, proposed a peace ; and a treaty was accordingly concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle, October 18, 1748.

In 1751 died Frederick, prince of Wales, beloved by the majority for his good nature, and his opposition to the ministry. So much had he displeased his royal parent on the latter account, that they seldom met amicably ; and when, on a former occasion, prince Frederick had offended the king in a family matter, a public order was issued to the effect, that all who visited the prince would be refused admission at court.

War again broke out with France, 1756, on account of the opposition of that power to the introduction of British settlers in Nova-Scotia ; a territory which the English were anxious to possess, in order the better to defend their American colonies and fishery. Although the British arms met with little success in Nova Scotia, many French ships were taken ; and nothing was then talked of but an invasion of England. Fifty thousand men were brought down to the French shores, to embark in flat-bottomed boats for the opposite coasts : but, from some undefined cause, the attempt was laid aside for an attack on Minorca. Admiral Byng was instantly despatched to raise the siege ; but sailing away without effecting his object, he was tried on his return to England, and shot at Spithead, 1757 ; though he protested his innocence as to any treacherous intent. The British ministry then entered into alliance with the king of Prussia, who promised to protect Hanover from the French ; and thus England and Prussia found themselves opposed alone to the allied powers of France, Russia, Austria, and Sweden, in what is called the seven years' war.

The two powers, however, desperate as was their case, succeeded against their enemies. By the spirited conduct of colonel Clive, who had recently been a clerk of the East India company, all the French towns and factories on the Coromandel coast in India, except Pondicherri, were seized by the English ; while, in 1759, the French possessions in North America fell rapidly before the British arms, general Wolfe at length entering Quebec as a conqueror, and all Canada surrendering to his troops. So did France, as if by magic influence, lose her hold upon her chief territories both in the East and West ; added to which, the vigorous measures of the new ministry under Mr. Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, seemed to threaten the very annihilation of her power. Though Hanover had fallen before the French, by the capitulation of Closter-Seven (whereby the duke of Cumberland, at the head of the Hanoverian army, gave up possession of the whole electorate, to the great horror of George II., who regarded the circumstance as the most disgraceful event of his reign), a reinforcement from England enabled the king of Prussia to proceed against the Russians ; while 7000 English, under duke Ferdinand of Brunswick, defeated 80,000 French at Minden, 1759. Early in 1760 a small French fleet, under Thurot, was sent against Ireland, and having landed its men at Carrickfergus, plundered that town. The English soldiers therein behaved gloriously, but were obliged to capitulate ; the fleet, however, was, in three days after the capitulation, surrounded, and captured by captain Eliot, after an action in which Thurot

fell. The British army in Germany was soon after augmented to 30,000, and continued opposed to the French with various success, till they retired in October 1760 into winter-quarters.

This measure had no sooner been taken, than news arrived of the death of George II. He had risen at his usual hour, October 25, and observed to the lord in waiting, that, as the weather was fine, he would walk before breakfast in the gardens of Kensington, where he then resided. In a few minutes after his return, being left alone in his room, he was heard to fall with violence upon the floor. His attendants hurried into the apartment, and lifted him upon his bed; when he desired with a faint voice that the princess Amelia might be sent for: but before she could reach his chamber, he had expired, from the unusual occurrence of the rupture of the right ventricle of the heart. He was in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and was buried in Westminster-abbey.

EVENTS.

CHARITABLE CORPORATIONS FRAUD, 1731, as in the history.

THE PORTEOUS RIOT, 1736. The Scottish people, unaccustomed to imposts, and regarding them as an unjust aggression upon their ancient liberties, made no scruple to elude them by smuggling, whenever it was possible to do so, throughout the reigns of the first and second George. In one instance, however, the revenue officers had succeeded in detecting Wilson, a baker in the county of Fife, and in ruining him by the fines levied upon him for his practices. This man, while infuriated by his losses, happening to hear that the collector of the customs at Kirkcaldy was at a house in a neighbouring village, with a large sum of government-money in his possession, attacked him with three associates, and took 200*l.* from his person; but, together with his chief accomplice, Robertson, he was apprehended with the booty in his pockets, and condemned to death. It was customary for such as had received sentence of death, to attend divine service in the Tolbooth church on the Sunday previous to the day of execution; and thither the two culprits were accordingly conveyed, guarded by four soldiers. Scarcely were the parties seated, when Wilson suddenly seized two of the guards in his arms, and calling out, 'Geordie, do for your life!' snatched hold of a third by the coat-collar with his teeth; on which Robertson, tripping up the fourth,

sprung over the seats with incredible agility, and got clear off. On the following Wednesday, Wilson was carried to the Grass-market, and executed. The crowd assembled was immense; but all was quiet till the executioner ascended the ladder to cut down the body; when he was saluted with a volley of stones, many of which struck and injured the town-guard, under the command of captain Porteous. This person, enraged at what he considered an insult to his authority, ordered his men to fire, himself, it is said, setting the example, without either reading the riot-act, or consulting the magistrates; by which four of the spectators were killed, and eleven severely wounded. As the magistrates were intimidated by the threats of the multitude, they were compelled to bring Porteous to trial, as the sole author of so many deaths; when, being found guilty, he was sentenced to be hanged on the spot where Wilson had suffered. A reprieve, however, arrived from London at the hour appointed for execution; and the consequence was a most unexampled riot in Edinburgh. After a night's labour, the Tolbooth, or Newgate, was broken open, the prisoners set loose, and Porteous, who was celebrating his delivery with a party of friends, seized, and carried by the people to instant death. Unable to obtain the usual apparatus, the mob hung him on a dyer's beam, and then quietly dispersed. When queen Caroline, who,

in the absence of her consort on the continent, had sent down the reprimand, heard of the manner in which it had been disregarded, she, in the height of her displeasure, exclaimed in the midst of the council, 'that sooner than submit to such an insult, she would make Scotland a hunting-field.' 'In that case, Madam,' returned John, duke of Argyle, with a profound bow, 'I will take leave of your majesty, and go down to my own country to get my hounds ready.' Milder courses, however, were recommended, and adopted; but it is singular that, although many were examined on suspicion of having been concerned in the riot, and the investigation extended over years, not a single individual was ultimately convicted.

ESCAPE OF PRINCE CHARLES EDWARD, 1746. On quitting Culloden, the prince was conveyed to Long island, where he lay for some time concealed; but some troops being in pursuit of him thither, Miss Flora Macdonald, a young lady animated by the sacred principle of loyalty, offered to accompany him in an open boat to Skye, though the coast they were to quit was guarded by ships. Charles, dressing himself in woman's clothes, and taking the name of Betty Bourke, consented to become her Irish waiting-servant; and they crossed, after several shots had been fired to bring them to, from Long island to the seat of Sir Alexander Macdonald at Mugstot. Here lady Macdonald settled that he should remain for a few hours, on a hill near the house; while her relative, Miss Flora, dined with her. At lady Margaret's table dined also an officer of the duke of Cumberland's army, stationed here with a party of soldiers to watch for the prince, should he land in Skye; and she often, after the escape of the latter, laughed at the officer in question, for her skill in deceiving him. The repast being over, Flora on horseback, followed by her Irish servant, Kingsburgh, a respectable laird, and the servant

of the latter, all proceeded to Kingsburgh's house; and in their way thither, having to cross a brook, Charles, that his clothes might not get wet, held them up a great deal higher than ladies are accustomed to do; and being cautioned as to this point, he, on passing a second rivulet, did not hold them up at all, but let them float upon the water, which some women on the spot observing, said 'she looked more like a man than a woman, and perhaps it was the prince.' The prince slept at Kingsburgh's more soundly, and for a longer time, than he had been able for many nights to do; and the next day proceeded to Portree, as before, after Kingsburgh had given him a new pair of shoes, his old ones being terribly worn. 'These,' observed the old laird, 'I will keep until you are safely settled at St. James's.' Charles smiled and said, 'Be as good as your word!' Kingsburgh kept them as long as he lived; and they were bought at his decease by a zealous Jacobite, for twenty guineas. His wife, after the prince had departed, folded up the sheets in which he had slept, never allowed them to be washed more, and was buried in them as a winding-sheet.

On the road to Portree, Charles, fearing detection on account of his awkwardness, changed his petticoats for a tartan short coat and waistcoat, with phillibeg, and short hose, a plaid, wig, and bonnet. At Portree, Miss Flora quitted the prince; and the Macleods, who had fought for him and been wounded at Culloden, conveyed him thence to their island of Rasay. As the place had been wholly laid waste by the English soldiery, they hastily constructed a hut for the wanderer; and he pleased the Highlanders during his first meal, by preferring oaten bread and whiskey to wheaten bread and brandy; declaring that he would take only the former staple commodities of the land of his fathers, so long as they lasted to him. Young Rasay had secretly taken a kid from

his own flock, and now dressed it for supper; and the attendants keeping watch whilst Charles slept, they observed him start frequently, and now and then exclaim in a murmuring tone, 'Oh God! poor Scotland!' As there was difficulty in ascertaining at Rasay whether a French ship could be found, the whole party returned to Skye, where Charles had now a cow-house for his residence. It was here that the prince desired Malcolm Macleod to walk with him a little way from the house; when he opened his mind, saying, 'I deliver myself to you. Conduct me forthwith to the laird of M'Kinnon's country.' Malcolm objected that it was dangerous, as so many parties of soldiers were in motion. He answered, 'There is nothing now to be done without danger.' He then said that Malcolm must be the master, and he the servant; so he took the bag in which his linen was put up, and carried it on his shoulder; and observing that his waistcoat, which was of scarlet tartan with a gold twist button, was finer than Malcolm's, he put on Malcolm's waistcoat, and gave him his. Malcolm, though an excellent walker, found himself excelled by the prince, who told him he should not much mind the parties that were looking for him, were he once but a musket-shot from them; but that he was somewhat afraid of the Highlanders who were against him, and who, though they would not betray him to his enemies, would not mind assassinating him. As they proceeded through the mountains, taking many a circuit to avoid houses, Malcolm, to try his resolution, asked him what they should do, should they fall in with a party of soldiers. He answered, 'Fight to be sure!' Having asked Malcolm if he should be known in his present dress, and Malcolm having replied he would, he said, 'Then I'll blacken my face with powder.' 'That,' said Malcolm, 'would discover you at once.' 'Then,' said he, 'I must be put in the

greatest dishabille.' So he pulled off his whig, tied a handkerchief round his head, and put his nightcap over it, tore the ruffles from his shirt, took the buckles out of his shoes, and made Malcolm fasten them with strings; but still Malcolm thought he would be known. 'I have so odd a face (said he) that no man ever saw me but he would know me again.' He seemed unwilling to give credit to the horrid narrative of men being massacred in cold blood, after victory had declared for the army commanded by the duke of Cumberland. He could not allow himself to think that a general could be so barbarous.

When they were near M'Kinnon's house (in Skye), they met a man named Ross, who had been a private soldier in the Highland army. He fixed his eyes steadily on the prince, then clapped his hands and exclaimed, 'Alas! is this the case?' Finding that there was now a discovery, Malcolm asked, 'What's to be done?' 'Swear him to secrecy,' answered prince Charles. Upon which Malcolm drew his dirk, and on the naked blade made him swear that he would say nothing of having seen the prince, till his escape should be made public. Malcolm's sister, whose house they reached pretty early in the morning, asked him who that was with him? He said it was one Louis Caw from Crieff, who being a fugitive like himself, he had engaged him as a servant; but that he had fallen sick. Her husband was gone a little way from home; but was expected every minute to return. She put for her brother a plentiful Highland breakfast. Prince Charles acted the servant well, sitting at a respectful distance with his bonnet off. Malcolm then said to him, 'Mr. Caw you have as much need of this as I have; there is enough for us both: you had better draw near and share with me.' Upon which he rose, made a profound bow, sat down at table, and eat very heartily. After this there came an old woman, who, according to ancient

hospitality, brought warm water and washed Malcolm's feet. He desired her to wash the feet of the poor man who attended him. She at first seemed averse from this, thinking him beneath her, and in the periphrastic language of the Highlanders, said warmly, 'Though I washed your father's son's feet, why should I wash his father's son's feet?' She was, however, persuaded to do it. They then went to bed, and slept for some time; and when Malcolm awoke, he was told that Mr. John M'Kinnon, his brother-in-law, was in sight. He sprang out to talk to him, before he should see prince Charles. After saluting him, Malcolm, pointing to the sea, said, 'What, John, if the prince should be prisoner on board one of these tenders?' 'God forbid!' replied John. 'What if we had him here?' said Malcolm. 'I wish we had,' answered John, 'we should take care of him.' 'Well, John,' said Malcolm, 'he is in your house.' John, in a transport of joy, wanted to run directly in, and pay his obeisance; but Malcolm stopped him, saying, 'Now is your time to behave well, and do nothing that can discover him.' John composed himself, and having sent away all his servants upon different errands, was introduced into the presence of his guest, and was then desired to go and get ready a boat lying near his house, which, though but a small leaky one, they resolved to take, rather than go to the laird of M'Kinnon. John Mac Kinnon, however, thought otherwise; and upon his return, told them that his chief and lady M'Kinnon were coming in the laird's boat. Prince Charles said to his trusty Malcolm, 'I am sorry for this, but must make the best of it.' M'Kinnon then walked up from the shore, and did homage to the prince, while his lady waited in a cave; to which they all afterwards repaired, and were entertained with cold meat and wine.

Mr. Malcolm Macleod being now superseded by the laird of M'Kinnon, desired leave to return to Rasay;

whereon the prince bade him a cordial adieu, and insisted on his accepting a silver stock-buckle, and ten guineas from his purse, though, as Malcolm said, it did not appear to contain above forty. Malcolm begged to be excused, saying that he had a few guineas at his service; but Charles answered, 'You will have need of money; and I shall get enough when I come upon the mainland.' The laird of M'Kinnon then conveyed the prince to the opposite coast of Knoidart. In this manner did the descendant of the unfortunate James rove about the country of his fathers; and it was not until five months from this period, that a privateer of St. Maloes, hired by his friends, arrived in Lochranach, in which he embarked in the most wretched attire. He was clad in a short coat of black frieze, threadbare; over which was a common Highland plaid, girt round him by a belt, from which hung a pistol and dagger. He had not been shifted for many weeks; his eyes were hollow, his visage wan, and his constitution greatly impaired by famine and fatigue. He was accompanied by Cameron of Lochiel, and other exiles, who had shared all his calamities after his quitting Skye. They set sail for France; and after having been chased by two English men-of-war, arrived in safety at Roseau, near Morlaix, in Bretagne. The prince never again revisited Britain, and died at Florence 1788. (See *Cardinal York*.)

EXECUTION OF EUGENE ARAM, 1759.—Aram was a market-gardener's son of Newly, Yorkshire; and having natural abilities, he obtained by his own labour enough Greek and Latin to set up a school at Knaresborough. About 1745 one Daniel Clarke, a shoemaker of that place, was suddenly missing, under suspicious circumstances; but as his affairs were known to be in a deranged state, he was generally supposed to have absconded from his creditors, till full thirteen years afterwards, when an imprudent expression, drop-

ped by one Richard Houseman, respecting a skeleton then discovered in a cavern called St. Robert's cave, caused him to be taken into custody, as one concerned in the murder of Clarke. From Houseman's confession, an order was issued for the apprehension also of Aram, who had long since quitted his native county, and been usher in various schools; in which occupation he had acquired a knowledge of the oriental languages, and evinced some taste as a poet. In 1758 he was lodged in York castle, on the charge above mentioned, brought to trial on the 3d of August, 1759, and, notwithstanding one of the most eloquent, argumentative, and pathetic defences ever known, fully convicted on the testimony of Houseman, corroborated by strong circumstantial evidence. Aram eventually acknowledged his guilt; but on being summoned to execution, it was discovered that he had contrived to wound the veins of his arm in two places with his razor; life, however, was not extinct, and being conveyed in a state of stupor to the gallows, he underwent the sentence of the law, and was afterwards gibbeted in Knaresborough forest. His trial produced, at the moment, a sensation equalled only by that connected with the case of Thurtell in later times.

EDDYSTONE LIGHTHOUSE COMPLETED, 1759.—The Eddystone rocks are situated twelve miles and a half off the Devonshire coast; and a lighthouse was first erected on them by Mr. Winstanley, 1696, in consequence of the terrible wrecks they had recently occasioned. The difficulties of the undertaking were many, and the dangers not less; for the rocks are surrounded by a deep and troubled ocean, which covers the greater part of them, and whenever it blows hard, rolls over them with resistless fury. The light was put up in 1698; and in November, 1703, the fabric wanting some repairs, Mr. Winstanley went down to Plymouth to superintend the performance of them. The opinion of the common

people at this period was, that the building would not be of long duration; but Mr. Winstanley held different sentiments, and when the presumed danger was mentioned to him previously to his going off the rocks, he replied, 'I am so well assured of the strength of it, that I should only wish to be there in the greatest storm that ever blew under the face of the heavens.' In this he was too soon gratified; for while he was in the lighthouse, a dreadful storm began, which raged most violently on the night of the 26th of November, 1703; and on the ensuing morning not a vestige of the structure was to be seen.

The building had not been long destroyed, before a homeward-bound Virginian went to pieces on the rocks; a calamity which induced benevolent persons to hasten the restoration of the Eddystone. A captain Lovett, therefore, completed a second one in 1709: and during its construction, Louis XIV. being at war with England, a French privateer made prisoners of the men at work upon it, and carried them, together with their tools, to France. The transaction having reached the ears of Louis, he most nobly ordered them to be released, and the captors to be put in their place; declaring that, 'though at war with England, he was not at war with mankind.' He even sent back the men to their work with presents, observing, 'that the lighthouse was of service to all nations having occasion to navigate the channel that divides France from England.' This building was destroyed by fire 1755, and the three light-keepers were with difficulty saved by boats. One of these, Henry Hall, ninety-four years of age, told the surgeon who attended him, that while looking up the building (as the fire began at the top) a quantity of molten lead had suddenly poured down upon him, some of which had gone down his throat. The thing seemed incredible to Dr. Spry; but on the eleventh day, the man dying suddenly in great agony, his body was opened, and

there was found in the stomach a solid piece of lead, of a flat oval form, weighing seven ounces.

Notwithstanding this second failure, Mr. Smeaton, the engineer, was appointed to commence a lighthouse of stone on the rocks, 1756; and in October, 1759, a happy period was put to the undertaking, without loss of life or limb to any one concerned in it. It now only remained to wait for a storm, to try the solidity of the edifice. The hard weather of 1759, 1760, 1761, appeared to make no impression upon it. The year 1762 was ushered in by a tempest of the greatest violence, the rage of which was such, that one of those who had been used to fortel its downfall, was heard to say 'if the Eddystone be now standing, it will stand for ever!' From that time, any doubt of the strength and solidity of the building has been so entirely out of men's minds, that whatever storms have happened since, no inquiry has ever been made concerning it.

LAW'S PROJECTS, 1716.—John Law, a Scotsman of bad character, who had been condemned to death for manslaughter, after having proposed to the British parliament various wild plans of finance, was permitted by the regent of France to found a bank at Paris, 1716, which became the national depository; and to this were added the interests of the Mississippi company. The hopes of immense gain gradually brought all the specie of the kingdom under his control; and in 1719 his paper was calculated to be worth eighty times the circulating coin of the nation. Like the South Sea scheme in England, the consequences were most fatal. On a sudden, the bank was incapable of answering the demands made upon it, and thousands of families were without homes and without bread. It was with difficulty that the regent quelled the tumults that were every where commencing. Law escaped, and died some time after at Venice; but years passed away before France recovered from the blow.

REVOLT OF CORSICA.—This island having declared itself independent of Genoa, 1729, an adventurer, calling himself Theodore, baron of Neuhoof, by birth a Frenchman, landed from a ship laden with warlike stores, 1736, and offered to aid the inhabitants in their conflicts with their former masters. The French, however, taking part with the Genoese, Theodore, who had been proclaimed king of Corsica, again became a wanderer, and ultimately died in want in London, 1756. The British, in 1745, sent a fleet in aid of the islanders, but recalled it, in consequence of the want of union amongst the leading Corsicans; and though, by the efforts of Paoli, the Genoese were at length driven out, 1755, the French obtained a cession of the isle to their nation by Genoa, 1768, and completely subdued it in the following year. (*See Paoli.*)

EARTHQUAKE AT LIMA.—This city of South America was destroyed by a terrible earthquake, 1746; but it is a visitation of such frequent occurrence there, that the people think they do enough by rebuilding, after each calamity, on the ground-floor only; so that the houses are low. They are, however, capacious and handsome; being usually of stone, with the roofs partially covered with reeds or beautiful cloths, on which the inhabitants sit to enjoy the refreshing breezes in a climate where it never rains. All the churches and convents of Lima are extremely rich; and many images of the saints are of massive gold, adorned with jewels. So wealthy was the city in 1672, that when the viceroy arrived from Spain, the inhabitants actually paved the streets through which he made his public entry, with ingots of silver.

THE PRINCE OF ORANGE WAS MADE STADTHOLDER, 1747, by the title of William IV. The office had been vacant from 1702.—(*See Holland under William IV.*)

TUSCANY CEDED TO GERMANY.—By the treaty of London, 1718, the emperor Charles VI. agreed to give

Tuscany as a fief of the empire to don Carlos, infante of Spain, as being the next heir, should the grand-duke, John Gaston de Medici, die without issue. Carlos, however, impatient for possession, obliged the Florentines, 1732, to do him homage, before the death of John Gaston, and without the consent of the emperor; and war breaking out in consequence between the Germans and Spaniards in Italy, the latter were not only successful in gaining Tuscany, but Naples and Sicily, for Don Carlos, who was accordingly crowned king at Palermo, 1735. (*See Two Sicilies under Charles I.*) By a treaty, 1736, Tuscany was taken from king Charles, and given to the duke of Lorraine (afterwards the emperor Francis I.) in lieu of Lorraine, which was given to Stanislaus of Poland for his life, and then to be annexed for ever to France. The Florentine state has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, the present grand-duke of Tuscany (1840) being Leopold II., cousin of the present emperor, Ferdinand I.

Tuscany, the restorer of literature and the arts, comprises the fruitful vale of Arno, emphatically styled the Paradise of Europe. And if its natural advantages are great, its civil and social system has long tended to render its inhabitants perhaps the most contented and flourishing race in the world. Tuscany is truly a land flowing with milk and honey: corn, wine, oil, oranges, citrons, figs, are in abundance; while the groves of mulberry-trees admit a most extensive cultivation of the silkworm, whereby the richest silks are produced. It is to the existing agricultural system that the Florentines are mainly indebted for their happiness. The tenure in socage, or tenure on half-produce (*see Socage Tenure*) is universal in Tuscany. There are great as well as small proprietors: all divide their land in nearly equal *métairies* (in Italian, *podere*) of from six to ten acres, the net produce of which varies from 50*l.* to 150*l.*

sterling, in a country where all provisions are cheap. The small proprietors divide the harvests themselves with the peasant; the large have factors, who manage at the same time twenty or thirty *podere*. The cottage of the labourer is built in the middle of the portion of land which he and his family have to cultivate; and is generally so placed, as that he can at once overlook the whole. In the lower part is the stable and wine-press; above, two or three dwelling-rooms. As the same house and fields generally pass from father to son for several generations, the labourer (*contadino*) becomes attached to them, with all the pride of property; he ornaments them in all the pure taste of the Tuscans; he decorates with flowers his *aia*, at the same time that he stocks it with various kinds of poultry. The *contadino*, interested in all the progress of agriculture, dividing with his master the fruits of his labour, cultivates with a sort of affection the corn, vine, olive, mulberry, and chestnut, with all the numerous fruit-trees intermixed, in the narrow space assigned him: he seldom employs workmen,—himself, his wife, and children, do all the work; he disburses no money—almost all the capital he lays out is in the form of labour: but there is no need of any overlooking to make him work—his ardour equals that of those who work by task; only it is important to him to do it as well as fast. He braves the heat of the sun, and the dews of the evening; he dreams at night of the ameliorations of which his *podere* is capable; he has all the advantages and all the enjoyments of property. All, however, is not his: on the day of harvest, the master of the factor comes; the thrashed corn is measured on the floor, and of every two bushels the master takes one; if it is he who furnished the seed, he takes, before the corn is divided, a heaped bushel for every one he provided. Divisions are again in like manner made at the harvests of Indian corn, the vintage,

the flour of chestnuts, the oil, and the cods of silk. Finally, the *métayer* gives the master, in spring, a couple of fowls, and in autumn a couple of capons, for his share of the poultry-court; and a fixed quantity of milk, butter, and cheese, for that of the stable. Every thing is paid in kind between the master and the *métayer*; the latter does not buy or sell any thing; he handles no money; the former remains alone charged with the taxes. The master, likewise, has no money to disburse on his side, except for those great ameliorations which create, as it were, a new property—the construction of canals for watering meadows, or dykes for rivers—having already furnished the land with the plantations on it, the first set of instruments of husbandry, the stock, and the seed; and he feels perfectly assured that his rent is secure, easy of collection, and yielded to the full point of value.

No better proof could be afforded of the superiority of the Tuscan system of agriculture, than by the fact that, after the acknowledged scanty harvest of 1839 throughout Europe and America, the Tuscan states had, in the month of November, more corn than they could find sale for—569,499 sacks of wheat being offered to buyers at Leghorn on the 10th of the month, at prices which could hardly be thought to compensate the cost of growth.

EXTRAORDINARY LONGEVITY.—‘Threescore years and ten’ are affirmed by the royal psalmist to be the ordinary allotted duration of human life; and if men do perchance reach fourscore, ‘yet,’ continues the same authority, ‘is their strength then but labour and sorrow.’ Among the few exceptions to this rule may be named one *James Bowels*, a resident of Killingworth, Warwickshire, who died, aged 152 years, in full possession of his senses, August, 1756. Antecedent to him was *Henry Jenkins*, of Bolton, Yorkshire, who reached the yet more extraordinary age of 169. His faculties remained strong to the

last; and at an assize he appeared to give evidence of what had passed within his knowledge 140 years before. He remembered the battle of Flodden-field. As he was born before registers were kept, no place would acknowledge him as a native; so that, to the disgrace of his opulent neighbours, he was compelled to beg his bread in the last part of his life. He died in 1670; and there is erected to his memory a monument in Bolton church, Yorkshire, where he was buried. But the person whose name is most familiarly connected with our notions of longevity is *Thomas Parr*, a peasant of Shropshire, who lived 152 years and nine months. He performed penance in his parish-church at the age of 100 for an illegitimate child; and at 120 married a second wife, by whom he had a son. He was, in 1685, brought to London, and introduced to Charles I.; but the change of situation, and particularly the drinking of wine, proved fatal to a constitution hitherto supported by more temperate and abstemious habits, and he died the same year. There have been various others who have reached nearly the same great age; but there is one who exceeded even Jenkins in duration of life. This was a negress named *Louisa Truxo*, who died at Tucomea, in South America, aged 179 years, 1784.

THE EARTHQUAKE AT LISBON, 1755.—As one of these awful visitations differs little from another, excepting in the amount of injury to life and property, a succinct narrative of the very dreadful calamity in question, from the pen of an eyewitness, will afford as correct a notion as can be desired of the nature of such phenomena. Mr. Braddock thus writes to Dr. Sandby, chancellor of the diocese of Norwich: ‘It was on the morning of November 1, between the hours of nine and ten, that I was set down in my apartment, when the papers and table I was writing on began to tremble with a gentle motion; which surprised me, as I could not

perceive a breath of wind stirring. Whilst reflecting what this could be owing to, the whole house began to shake from the very foundation; which at first I imputed to the rattling of several coaches in the main street; but on hearkening more attentively, I was undeceived, and heard a strange frightful kind of noise under ground, resembling the rumbling of thunder. Upon this I threw down my pen, remaining in suspense, whether I should stay in the apartment, or run into the street, as the danger in both places seemed equal; but I was roused from my dream by a most horrid crash, as if every edifice in the city had tumbled down at once. The house I was in shook with such violence, that the upper stairs immediately fell; and in my apartment (which was on the first floor) every thing was thrown out of its place. The walls continued rocking to and fro, opening in several places; large stones fell on every side; and the ends of the rafters started out. To add to this terrifying scene, the sky became so gloomy, that I could for a time distinguish no particular object; but as soon as the gloom had begun to disperse, I perceived in my room a woman sitting on the floor, with an infant in her arms, all covered with dust, pale, and trembling. I asked how she got hither; but her consternation was so great, that she could give me no account of herself. The poor creature complained of being choked, and begged for God's sake I would procure her a little drink; but I told her she must not now think of quenching her thirst, but of saving her life, as, if a second shock should come, the house would certainly bury us both. We made directly to that end of the street which opens to the Tagus; but finding the passage blocked up by the fallen houses, I turned back to the other side. Here, having helped the woman over a vast heap of ruins, I desired her, as there was a part I could not climb over without the assistance of my hands, to let go her

hold, which she did, remaining two or three feet behind me; at which instant there fell a vast stone from a tottering wall, and crushed both her and her child to death. So dismal a spectacle at any other time would have affected me most deeply; but the dread I was in of sharing the same fate, and the many instances of the same kind which presented themselves all around, were too shocking to make me dwell a moment on this single object.

'I had now a long narrow street to pass, with the houses on each side four or five stories high, all very old, the greater part already thrown down, or threatening the passengers with inevitable death at every step, numbers of whom lay killed before me, or (what I thought far more deplorable) so bruised and wounded, that they could not stir. Having at length got clear of this horrid passage, I found myself unhurt in the large open space before St. Paul's church, which had been thrown down a few minutes before, and had buried a great part of the congregation. Here I stood some time, considering what I should do; and not thinking myself safe, came to the resolution of climbing over the ruins of the west end of the church, to get to the river-side, that I might be removed as far as possible from the tottering houses, in case of a second shock. This, with some difficulty, I accomplished; and here I found a prodigious concourse of people, of both sexes, and of all ranks and conditions; among whom I observed some of the principal canons of the patriarchal church, in their purple robes and rochets; ladies half-dressed, and some without shoes: all these, whom their mutual dangers had assembled, were on their knees in prayer, with the terrors of death in their countenances, every one striking his breast and crying out incessantly, *Misericordia Dios!*

'In the midst of our devotions, a second shock came on, little less violent than the former, and completed the ruin of the devoted city. You

may judge of the force of this shock, when I inform you that I could scarcely keep on my knees; and it was attended with some circumstances still more dreadful than the first. On a sudden I heard a general outcry, 'The sea is coming in; we shall all be lost!' and turning my eyes to the river, which in that place is nearly four miles broad, I perceived it heaving in a most unaccountable manner; there then appeared a body of water, rising like a mountain, which came on, foaming and roaring, and rushed towards the shore with such impetuosity, that we all ran for our lives. Many were actually swept away, and the rest immersed above their waists in water. I should certainly have been lost, had I not grasped a large beam that lay on the ground, till the water returned to its channel, which it did with equal rapidity. As there now appeared as much danger from the sea as from the land, I returned to the area of St. Paul's: and as I stood here, I observed the ships tumbling and tossing about, as in a violent storm; some were whirled round with incredible swiftness, and several large boats were turned keel upwards; and all this without any wind. It was at this moment that the fine new marble quay was entirely swallowed up, with all on it who had fled thither for safety; while a number of small vessels anchored near it (all likewise full of people) were drawn down, as in a whirlpool, and never more appeared!

'I had not long been in the area of St. Paul's, when I felt the third shock: the sea rushed in again, and retired with the same rapidity, and I remained up to my knees in water, though I had got upon a small eminence. I now resolved to go to the Mint, which being a low and strong building, had received no considerable damage. The guard of soldiers had deserted their commanding officer, a nobleman's son, about eighteen years of age, whom I found standing at the gate. Having expressed my

admiration that one so young should have the courage to keep his post, he replied that, though he were sure the earth would open and swallow him up, he scorned to think of flying from his duty. In short, it was owing to the magnanimity of this youth that the Mint, which had upwards of two millions of money in it, was not robbed. I believe I might remain in conversation with him nearly five hours; and though I was now grown faint from the constant fatigue I had undergone, not yet having broken my fast, yet this had not so much effect upon me, but that I could feel great anxiety to ascertain the condition of a particular friend, with whom I was to have dined that day, and who, lodging at the top of a very high house in the heart of the city, could not but be in the utmost danger. I took leave, therefore, of the brave officer, and passed before the Irish convent of Corpo Santo, which had been thrown down, and had buried a great number of persons who were at mass. The rest of the community were standing in the area, looking with dejected countenances towards the ruins. From this place I took my way to the spot where the Opera-house had stood.

'The new scenes of horror I now witnessed exceed all description. I did not meet any one who was not bewailing the death of relations and friends, or the loss of all his substance. I could hardly take a step without treading on the dead or the dying. In some places lay coaches with their masters, horses, and riders, crushed in pieces; here, mothers with infants in their arms; there, ladies richly dressed, priests, friars, gentlemen, mechanics, either in the same condition, or just expiring; some had their backs or thighs broken, others vast stones on their breasts; some lay almost buried in the rubbish, and cried out in vain to the passengers for succour. Finding that the house of which I was in search was in ruins, I made my way in about an hour to a public-house,

kept by one Morley, near the English burying-ground. As soon as it grew dark, a spectacle presented itself little less shocking than those already described: the whole city was in a blaze! and thus it continued burning for six days together, without the least attempt being made to quench the fire.

'The loss of human life was more afflicting than that of palaces, churches, convents, and private houses; and prodigious numbers perished, from the first shock having happened when the grand body of the inhabitants were assembled at their devotions. In the convent of St. Francis, having three hundred friars, the roof fell down as they were singing in the choir, and buried all except eighteen, together with the numerous congregation below. In that of the Trinity 1500 were killed; and every other church and chapel suffered in proportion. The total number that perished is estimated, on the lowest calculation, to be 60,000; and though the damage in other respects cannot be computed, yet you may form some notion of it, when I assure you, that this before opulent city is now nothing but a vast heap of ruins, that the rich and poor are upon a level, and that thousands of families, which but the day before had been easy in their circumstances, are now scattered about in the fields, wanting every convenience of life, and finding no one able to relieve them.'

THE BLACK-HOLE IMPRISONMENT, 1756.—The ill-conduct of Drake, English governor of Calcutta (who had, amongst other reprehensible acts, unjustly imprisoned a very considerable native merchant), having drawn the resentment of the subahdar, Seraj-ad-Dowla, upon the British factory, that tributary of the emperor of Delhi marched against it in person with a large force, and laid siege to the fort. Drake no sooner witnessed the consequence of his proceedings, than he deserted his post; and a Mr. Holwell took the

command, resolving to defend the place as long as he was able. This opposition of Mr. Holwell still more inflamed the Indian; who, supposing great treasures to be in the fort, in which the new commander had an interest, pushed on the siege with the greatest vigour. The following is Mr. Holwell's own statement: 'The subahdar and his troops were in possession of the fort before six in the evening. At a third interview with him, before seven, he repeated his assurances to me, on the word of a soldier, that no harm should come to us; and indeed I believe his orders were only general, that we should that night be secured; and that what followed was the result of revenge in the breasts of the inferior officers (to whose custody we were delivered), for the number of their order killed during the siege. Be this as it may, as soon as it was dark, we were directed to collect ourselves into one body, and sit down quietly under the arcade. About 400 or 500 men, who were drawn up upon the parade, then advanced, and with their muskets presented, ordered us to go into the room, commonly called the Black-hole prison, situated at the end of the barracks.

'I got possession of the window nearest the door, and took Messrs. Cole and Scott with me, they being both wounded. It was now about eight o'clock. Figure to yourself the situation of 146 wretches, exhausted by fatigue and action, crammed together in a room eighteen feet square, and open only to the westward by two windows, strongly barred with iron, from which we could receive scarcely a breath of air, during a sultry night, in the burning climate of India. What must ensue appeared to me in lively and dreadful colours, the instant I cast my eyes around. Many attempts were made to force the door; but having nothing but our hands to work with, and the door opening inwards, all our endeavours were fruitless. Amongst the guards posted at the window, I observed an

old Indian sergeant, who seemed to carry some compassion for us in his countenance. I called him, and pressed him to endeavour to get us separated, half in one place, and half in another; and told him that he should receive 1000 rupees for this act of tenderness. He withdrew, but in a few minutes returned, and told me it was impossible. I then thought I had been deficient in my offer, and promised him 2000: he withdrew a second time, but returned soon after, and said it could not be done but by the general's order, and that no one dared to awake him. We had been but a few minutes confined, when every one fell into a perspiration so profuse, that it brought on a raging thirst, which increased in proportion as the body was drained of its moisture. Various expedients were thought of to give more room and air. To obtain the former, it was proposed to put off our clothes; and this being approved by some, in a few minutes every man was stripped but myself and the few about me. Every hat was then put in motion to produce a circulation of air; and Mr. Baillie next suggested that all should sit on the floor for a while. This expedient was several times put in practice, and each time many of the poor creatures, who could not immediately recover their legs when the word was given to rise, fell to rise no more; for they were instantly trodden to death.

Before nine o'clock, every man's thirst grew intolerable, and respiration difficult. Efforts were made again to force the door, but in vain. Insults were used to the guards to provoke them to fire upon us. For my own part I hitherto felt neither pain nor uneasiness, but what resulted from the sufferings of those within. By keeping my face between two of the bars, I obtained air enough to give my lungs easy play, though my perspiration was excessive. At this period, so strong a flavour came from the prison, that I was not able to turn my head that way for more than a few seconds at a time. Every body

now, excepting those situated in and near the window, began to grow outrageous, and many delirious. 'Water! water!' became the general cry; and the old sergeant before mentioned taking pity on us, ordered the people to bring some skins of water. This was what I dreaded. I foresaw it would prove the ruin of the small hope left us, and essayed many times to speak to him privately, to forbid its being brought; but the clamour was so loud, it became impossible. The water appeared; but words cannot paint the agitation into which the sight of it threw us. Until it came I had not myself suffered much from thirst, which instantly grew excessive. We had no means of conveying it into the prison but by hats forced through the bars; and thus myself and Messrs. Cole and Scott supplied the rest as fast as possible. The confusion on a sudden became horrible beyond bearing; and many, forcing their passage from the further part of the room, carried down those in their way who had less strength, and trampled them to death.

From about nine to near eleven I sustained this cruel scene and painful situation, still supplying them with water, though my legs were almost broken with the weight against them. By this time I was nearly squeezed to death; and my two wounded companions, with Mr. Parker, who had forced himself into the window, were actually killed. For a great while the crowd had preserved respect and regard for me, but now all distinction was lost. My friends Baillie, Law, Buchanan, and others, had for some time been dead at my feet, and were trampled upon by each private soldier, who, by the help of a more robust constitution, could force his way to the window, and hold fast by the bars over me; till at last I became so wedged up, as to be deprived of all motion. Determined now to give up every thing, I called to them, and begged, as the last instance of their regard, that they would remove the pressure upon me, and permit me to

retire, and die in quiet. They gave way, and with difficulty I forced a passage to the centre of the prison; where the throng was less by the many dead, and by the numbers who flocked to the windows. Here my poor friend Mr. Eyre came staggering over the dead to me, and, with his usual coolness and good-nature, asked me how I did; but fell and expired, before I had time to make him a reply. I laid myself down on some of the dead behind me, and recommending myself to Providence, had the comfort of thinking my sufferings could have no long duration. My thirst, however, grew insupportable, and the difficulty of breathing much increased. I had not remained in this situation many minutes, when I was seized with a violent pain in my breast, and palpitation of heart, which obliged me to get up again; but still the pain, palpitation, and difficulty of breathing increased. I retained my senses notwithstanding; and called aloud for 'water, for God's sake!' I had been concluded dead; but as soon as the survivors found me amongst them, they still had the respect for me to cry out, 'Give him water!' nor would one of them attempt to touch it, until I had partaken of it. My thirst being increased by the fluid, I determined to drink no more, but kept my mouth moist from time to time by sucking the perspiration out of my shirt-sleeves, and catching the drops as they fell like heavy rain from my head and face. You can hardly imagine how unhappy I was, if any of them escaped my mouth.

'By eleven, the greater number of those living were in an outrageous delirium, and the others quite ungovernable; few retaining any calmness, excepting those next the windows. They all now found that water heightened their uneasiness; and 'Air! air!' was the general cry. Every insult that could be devised against the guard was again resorted to, to provoke them to fire on us. But as all was of no avail, many, whose strength and spirits were quite ex-

hausted, laid themselves down, and expired quietly upon their fellows. A steam now arose from the living and the dead, which for a time most awfully affected us. I need not ask your commiseration when I tell you, that from this time till near two in the morning, I sustained the weight of two heavy men, one a Dutch sergeant, who had taken his seat upon my left shoulder, and the other a black, who occupied my right: all which nothing could have enabled me long to support, but the props and pressure equally sustaining me all around. I at length forced my way from the spot, and saw several in the inner ranks dead, though standing; being kept in that position by the throng. Finding a stupor coming on apace, I placed myself by the side of that gallant old man, the Rev. Mr. Bellamy, who lay dead with his son, the lieutenant, hand in hand, near the southmost wall of the prison; but of what passed from this moment to the time of my liberation I can give no account.

'When the day broke, I am told it occurred to Mr. Secretary Cook to make a search for me, in the hope that I might have influence enough to gain a release from this scene of misery. Accordingly I was, by my shirt, discovered under the dead, and brought towards the window I had originally possession of. At this juncture, the subahdar, who had received an account of the havoc death had made amongst us, sent one of his sergeants to inquire if the Chief survived. They showed me to him; told him I had the appearance of life remaining; and believed I might recover, if the door was opened very soon. On this an order came immediately for our release, it being then near six in the morning; but as the door turned inwards, and the dead were piled up against it, and covered all the floor, it was impossible to open it by efforts from without. It became, therefore, necessary that the bodies should be removed by the few who were within, who were become

so feeble, that the task, though on the condition of life, was not performed without the utmost difficulty; and it was twenty minutes after the order came, before the egress of the survivors could be effected. About a quarter after six, the poor remains of 146 souls, being no more than twenty-three, came out of the black-hole alive; but in a condition which made it very doubtful whether they would see the morning of another day.' Mr. Holwell and the rest of the survivors were conveyed in a coach drawn by oxen to Patna, where they were soon after released by the subahdar, at the intercession of his grandmother; and taking boat, they departed for a neighbouring Dutch settlement, whence they set sail for England.

THE SEVEN YEARS WAR, 1756 to 1763, in which Prussia united with England against France, Russia, Sweden, and Austria.

ESCAPE OF DELATUDE, 1756.—The ingenuity displayed by man to escape from thralldom to his natural liberty, although to exercise that quality too often falls to the lot of such as have, by an ill course of life, sharpened the cunning propensities of their nature beyond the point which honesty requires, has been usually a subject of interest amongst the human race; and we question whether the most rigid moralist does not, when he hears of the hairbreadth escape of some notorious evil-doer, rather wish that gaolers were more vigilant, or prison-walls more impassable, than feel regret at the well-earned emancipation of the culprit. The escape from the Bastille in France, of Delatude, a political offender, is acknowledged to exhibit one of the most remarkable instances on record of the power of courage and perseverance to overcome the greatest difficulties. Delatude, of a respectable family in Languedoc, and intended for the engineers, came to Paris; and being unsuccessful in obtaining an appointment, he formed a scheme to gain the good will and

protection of Madame de Pompadour, the king's mistress, by disclosing to her a pretended plot for poisoning her. This artifice being detected, he was seized, 1749, and confined in the castle of Vincennes, from which he escaped, after nine months' confinement, but was retaken and imprisoned in the Bastille. He had for a fellow-prisoner a young man named D'Alegre, who had been confined at the instance of Madame de Pompadour for three years. The two occupied the same chamber. The governor Mons. Berryer treated them with humanity, and used his best endeavours to procure their discharge, but in vain. D'Alegre, at length yielded to despair; but his companion resolved to escape, or perish in the attempt.

'To any man who had the least notion of the Bastille,' records Delatude himself, 'its extent, its towers, its discipline, and the incredible precautions which despotism had multiplied to chain its victims, the mere idea of escaping from it would appear the effect of insanity, and would inspire nothing but pity for a wretch so devoid of sense as to dare to conceive it. A moment's reflection would suffice to show that it was hopeless to attempt an escape by the gates. Every physical impossibility was united to render this impracticable. We had no resource but by the outside. There was in our chamber a fireplace, the chimney of which came out on the extreme height of the tower: it was full of gratings and bars of iron, which in several parts of it scarcely left a passage for the smoke. Should we be able to get to the top of the tower, we should have below us a precipice of great height, at the bottom of which was a fossé, or broad ditch, surrounded by a very lofty wall. We were without assistance, without tools, without materials, constantly watched, and guarded besides by a great number of sentinels, who surrounded the outworks. So many obstacles, so many dangers did not deter me. I

hinted my scheme to my comrade; he thought me a madman, and relapsed into despair. I was obliged alone to digest my plan, to anticipate the frightful host of difficulties which opposed its execution, and to find the means of remedying them all. To accomplish our object, we had to climb to the top of the chimney, notwithstanding the many iron gratings which were opposed to our ascent; and then, in order to descend from the top of the tower into the fossé, we required a rope ladder of eighty feet, and another ladder of wood to get out of the fossé. If I could get these materials, I must hide them from every eye, must work without noise, and deceive all our spies; and this for months together. Our first object was to find a place of concealment for our tools and materials, if we should be so fortunate as to procure any. By dint of reflecting on the subject, a thought struck me, which appeared a very happy one. I had occupied several different chambers in the Bastille, and had observed, when the chambers either above or below me were occupied, that I had heard very distinctly any noise made in either. On the present occasion I heard all the movements of the prisoner above, but not of him below, though I felt convinced there was a prisoner there. I conjectured at last that there might be a double floor, with a space between each. I took the following means to satisfy myself on the point: there was in the Bastille a chapel, at which, by the favour of Mons. Berryer, we, as well as the prisoner below, were allowed to hear mass. I resolved, when mass was over, before the prisoner was locked up, to take a view of his chamber. I told D'Alegre how he was to assist me. I directed him to put his toothpick in his handkerchief, and when we should be on the second floor, to let it roll out and fall down the stairs; then to request the turnkey to fetch it up. My plan succeeded. While the turnkey was gone, I ran to the

room beneath my own, drew back the bolt, examined the height of the chamber, and found it about ten feet six inches. By counting the stairs to my room, I felt assured that there was between the two rooms, a space of full five feet. When I told D'Alegre we could now hide our ropes and materials, 'Ropes and materials' (cried he), where are they? and where shall we get them? 'In that trunk (said I) have I not a large stock of linen—twelve dozen of shirts, a great number of stockings and other things—we will unravel them, and we shall have ropes enough.' 'But how (exclaimed he) are we to extract the gratings of our chimney? where are we to obtain tools? we cannot create things!' 'My friend (I replied), it is genius which creates, and despair will guide our hands.' After this truly French mode of moralizing, Delatude contrived to make a knife out of the tinder-box, and a pair of levers with the legs of a table; and by the latter, when the other prisoners had retired to rest one night, they raised some tiles of the floor. They found the expected vacancy, replaced the tiles, and sat down to the work of ripping up shirts, and drawing out the threads one by one, wherewith to form a rope. Twisting these, they completed a strong cord fifty-five feet long, and made of it a ladder, by means of which they drew out, in six months, with incredible patience and labour, all the iron bars which crossed their chimney. The wooden ladder was now commenced; for which they used the fuel-logs, after converting part of a candle-stick into a saw. This being finished, they set about the principal ladder, which was to be eighty feet long, and which they constructed, like the first, of ropes.

'The upper part of the Bastille (continues Delatude) overhangs three or four feet. This would cause our ladder to swing about as we came down, enough to turn the strongest head. To obviate this, and prevent our fall, we made a strong

rope, 160 feet long. This rope was to be reeved through a kind of double block without sheaves, in case the person should be suspended in the air, without being able to get down. Besides these, we made several ropes of shorter lengths, to fasten our ladder to a cannon, and for other unforeseen occasions. When these ropes were finished, they measured 1400 feet. Eighteen months were employed in these preparations; but still they were incomplete. The parapet we had to cross after our descent, was always well furnished with sentinels. We might fix on a dark rainy night, when the sentinels did not go their rounds, and thus escape; but it might rain when we climbed the chimney, and might clear up when we arrived at the parapet: we should then meet with the chief of the rounds, and our ruin would be inevitable. Rather than pass along the parapet, we resolved on making a way through the wall which separates the fossé of the Bastille from that of the Port St. Antoine. For this purpose we should require an auger to make holes in the mortar, so that we might insert the points of the iron bars to be taken out of our chimney, and with them force out the stones to make our way through. Accordingly we made an auger with one of the feet of our bedsteads; and all things being ready on February 26, 1756, we waited till our supper was brought. I then first got up the chimney; but as I had taken none of the care used by sweeps, I was nearly choked by the soot; and having no guards on my knees and elbows, they were so excoriated, that the blood ran down upon my legs and hands. As soon as I had reached the top of the chimney, I let down a piece of twine to D'Alegre: to this he attached successively our port-manteau, the wooden ladder, the two iron bars, and all our other articles; the ladder of ropes I allowed to hang down, to aid D'Alegre in getting up, by which he avoided suffering what I had done. We were both of us soon

on the platform of the Bastille; and having fastened one end of the rope-ladder to a piece of cannon, we lowered it down the wall. I now tied the long rope round my body, and having well secured the block through which it passed, D'Alegre slackened it as I went down. Notwithstanding this precaution, I swung about in the air at every step I made upon the ladder; but at length I landed without accident in the fossé, the water coming up to my arm-pits. D'Alegre now lowering the port-manteau, and other things, I found a little spot uncovered by water, on which I put them; then my companion followed my example. It did not rain, and we heard the sentinel marching within four toises distance; we were therefore forced to give up our plan of escaping by the governor's garden, and resolved to use our iron bars. We crossed the fossé, over to the wall which divides it from the Port St. Antoine, and went to work sturdily. Just at this point there was a small ditch, six feet broad, and one deep, which increased the depth of the water; and as it had thawed only a few days, the water had yet floating ice in it. We had just begun our work, when the chief of the watch came round with his lantern, which cast a light on the place we were in: we had no alternative but to put our heads under water as he passed, which was every half hour. At length, after nine hours of incessant exertion, (the water all the while nearly up to our necks), having worked out the stones one by one, we succeeded in making in the wall, which was four feet six inches thick, a hole sufficiently wide, through which we crept. In crossing the fossé of St. Antoine, to get into the road to Berrey, we fell into the aqueduct, and with difficulty escaped drowning. Just as the clock struck five, we were on the high-road. Penetrated equally with sentiments of gratitude, we threw ourselves into each other's arms; and, after a long embrace, fell on our knees to offer thanks to the Almighty, who

had snatched us from so many dangers.'

CHIEF BATTLES.—*Dettingen*, 1743, between the French, who had 60,000 under marshal de Noailles, and the English, commanded by the king and the earl of Stair. George II. was in danger of being made prisoner; and this is the last battle in which a British sovereign held command. It was won by the English and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary. *Fontenoy*, 1745, wherein the French had 120,000 under count Saxe, son of the king of Poland, and the British, an inferior force under the duke of Cumberland. The French gained the victory. *Rosbach*, 1757, wherein Frederick the Great beat the French and Austrians, and repaired most of his losses. *Breslau*, 1757, by gaining which, Frederick the Great recovered Silesia, taking 16,000 of the Austrians prisoners. *Minden*, 1759, gained by prince Ferdinand of Brunswick over the French, commanded by marshal de Contades. The British and Hanoverian horse were led by lord George Sackville, who was, on his return to England, cashiered for disobeying prince Ferdinand's orders. *Quebec*, 1759, whereby the British obtained Canada from the French, though at the cost of the intrepid general Wolfe's life.

TOBAGO MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1787.—This isle, thirty-two miles long and twelve broad, lies six miles from Trinidad, and was discovered and named Tobacco by Columbus, 1496, (the title being derived from *the pipe* used by the islanders in smoking the herb now so extensively used in the Old World, then called *kohiba*). It was then peopled by Caribs, a savage race, since well known, and who were continually at war with another nation, called Arrawaaks, residing on the main land. The Tobaccans some time after fled from the pursuit of the Arrawaaks to St. Vincent; and in 1580 the British flag was planted on the island, though no colonization took place until 1632, when the

Dutch formed an establishment there, calling the isle New Walcheren. The Spaniards of Trinidad, however, attacked these, and after great slaughter, reduced Tobacco to its original solitude. In 1654 some Flushing merchants, named the Lampsins, again made a settlement in the Dutch name; but James I., of England, having granted Tobacco (now softened to Tobago) to his godson, the duke of Courland, the latter placed 100 families thereon soon after. The Lampsins at last succeeded in driving out the Courlanders, and held peaceable possession until 1677; when they were themselves expelled by the French, under the duc d'Estrées. No notice was taken again of the isle by England until 1737; when the house of Kettler, sovereigns of Courland, becoming extinct, the government claimed the reversion of Tobago, a claim which was at last recognised by Louis XV., 1763. The prosperity of the island dates from this period: large capitals were invested by British colonists, and agriculture and commerce rapidly progressed. During the American war, Tobago was captured by the marquis de Bouillé, 1781, and held by France; till general Cuyler, in 1793, at the head of 2000 men, recovered the island for Great Britain. Tobago has been called 'the melancholy isle,' because, when viewed from the north, it seems only a mass of lofty and gloomy mountains, with black precipices descending abruptly to the sea; but the south terminates in broken plains and low lands, the whole aspect, like Trinidad, being calm and magnificent. The delightful vales every where exhibit the effects of a rotary and undulating motion of the vast currents of water which have formerly swept them, and form, with the contiguous mountains, truly picturesque scenery. Sugar, rum, and molasses, are the staple produce; and the rule is vested in a lieutenant-governor, a council of nine, and a house of assembly of sixteen members.

THE CANADAS MADE ENGLISH COLONIES, 1759.—The coast of Canada was discovered 1459 by the Cabots, when in search of a north-west passage to Cathay (China), by order of Henry VII. The French, however, were the first to attempt a settlement; and 1534, Jacques Cartier, under a commission from Francis I., wintered on the shore of St. Lawrence, and took formal possession of the country. From that period until 1759 they kept it; when general Wolfe, by the conquest of Quebec (originally Quilibek), added it to the British crown. This extensive territory was in 1791 divided into two governments, entitled Upper and Lower Canada; and, as the boundaries of each province were ill-defined by the order in council, much dispute subsequently arose on the subject. *Lower Canada*, or the seaward portion, is principally inhabited by the descendants of the French settlers; and its boundaries are the Hudson's bay territory on the north, the gulf of St. Lawrence on the east, New Brunswick and part of the United States on the south, and on the west the ill-defined line separating it from Upper Canada. The whole territory is divided into three chief districts,—Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers; and two inferior ones,—Gaspé, and St. Francis. The chief exportable products of Lower Canada are timber and ashes. The government was, until 1840, vested in a legislative council of 34 members, at the head of which was a governor; and the house of assembly had 88 members, elected for four years by the British subjects of the province. The governors have been, 1765, James Murray; 1766, Paulus Emilius Irving; 1766, Guy Carleton; 1770, Hector J. Gramahé; 1774, Guy Carleton; 1774, Frederick Haldimand; 1774, Henry Hamilton; 1775, Henry Hope; 1776, Lord Dorchester; 1791, colonel Clarke—when the colony was divided into Upper and Lower, and colonel Simcoe was appointed lieu-

tenant-governor of Upper Canada. Then. 1793, Lord Dorchester; 1796, Robert Prescott; 1799, Sir Robert S. Milnes; 1805, Hon. Thomas Dunn; 1807, Sir J. H. Craig; 1811, Hon. Thomas Dunn; 1811, Sir George Prevost; 1815, Sir G. Drummond; 1816, John Wilson; 1816, Sir J. C. C. Sherbrooke; 1818, Duke of Richmond; 1819, Hon. James Monk; 1820, Sir Peregrine Maitland; 1820, Earl of Dalhousie; 1824, Sir Francis M. Burton; 1825, Earl of Dalhousie; 1828, Sir James Kemp; 1830, Lord Aylmer; 1835, Lord Gosford; 1838, Earl of Durham; 1839, Rt. Hon. Charles Poulett Thomson. *Upper Canada* is bounded on the south-west by a line drawn through the centre of the great lakes, and separating it from the United States on the north by the Hudson Bay territory, on the east by the Ottawa and Lower Canada, and on the north-west by the undefined boundaries, or it may be said by the Pacific Ocean, comprising 100,000 square miles. Upper Canada, as regards the inhabited parts, is a level champaign country; for from lake St. Francis to Sandwich (600 miles) nothing like a mountain occurs, although the greater part of the country gently undulates. A ridge of rocky country runs north-east and south-westerly, through the Newcastle and Midland district, towards the Ottawa or Grand River; and passing this ridge to the north, the explorer descends into a rich valley of great extent, which is again bounded on the north by a mountainous country of still higher elevation. In the whole extent of this vast tract, there is but a small portion under cultivation; and the settlements are confined to within a few miles of the borders of the great lakes and rivers. Toronto, formerly called York, but lately restored to its pristine name, is the infant capital of Upper Canada, delightfully situated near the head of Lake Ontario, on the north side of an excellent harbour. It

contains the parliament and government houses, and the principal public offices of the province. The governors have been, 1791, colonel John Simcoe; 1796, honourable Peter Russell; 1799, general Peter Hunter; 1805, honourable A. Grant; 1806, Francis Gore; 1811, Sir Isaac Brock; 1812, Sir R. H. Sheaffe; 1813, F. Baron de Rottemburgh; 1813, Sir Gordon Drummond; 1815, Sir George Murray; 1815, Sir F. P. Robinson; 1815, Francis Gore; 1817, honourable Samuel Smith; 1818, Sir P. Maitland; 1820, honourable Samuel Smith; 1820, Sir P. Maitland; 1828, Sir John Colborne; 1835, Sir Francis Bond Head; 1838, Sir George Arthur. The rule has been, until 1840, in a lieutenant-governor, an executive council of 5, and a legislative of 30 members, together with a house of assembly of 62 representatives. Copper and iron are abundant throughout Upper Canada; timber of all sorts, especially oak and pine, is every where found; the sugar-maple is in every district; and in fine fish the waters are unequalled. (*See Wolfe.*)

DOMINICA COLONIZED BY ENGLAND, 1759.—This volcanic Caribbee isle is 30 miles long and 16 broad, and was discovered by Columbus, 1493 on a Sunday, on which account he named it Dominica. The right of occupancy being claimed by France and Spain as well as England, the place was regarded by those countries as a neutral station until 1759; when, by conquest, it fell to Great Britain. The prosperity of the isle was rapidly increasing, when a large French force from Martinique, under the Marquis de Bouillé, seized it 1778, and kept it till 1783. It was then restored to England, and has ever since remained under its sway; though in 1805 a devastating descent was made on it by the French, who burned Roseau, the capital; on which occasion the spirit of the colonists, and the talents of Sir George Prevost, repelled the invaders. Domi-

nica is full of lofty broken mountains, the valleys between which are fertile and well watered. About six miles from Roseau, almost in the centre of the isle, and on the top of a very high mountain, surrounded by other more lofty hills, is a lake of fresh water, covering a space of several acres, and in some places, unfathomable; it spreads into three distinct branches, and has a very extraordinary appearance. The landscape behind Roseau is beautifully grand. The valley runs up for many miles in a gently inclined plane, between mountains of irregular heights and shapes, most of which are clothed up to their cloudy canopies with rich parterres of green coffee, which perfume the atmosphere to some distance over the sea; the river rolls a deep and roaring stream down the middle of the vale, and is joined at the outlet of each side ravine by a mountain-torrent; whilst, at the top, where the rocks converge into an acute angle, a cascade falls from the apex in a long sheet of silvery foam. The grand Savanna, twelve miles from Roseau, is a fine fertile elevated plain, upwards of a mile in extent; around whose declivities flourish the richest verdure, while cascades burst through the luxuriant vegetation to form a river in the plain below. Several of the mountains of Dominica are constantly burning with sulphur; and from their bases issue various streams of mineral waters, in some places hot enough to cook an egg in less time than boiling water. Gold and silver mines exist, but are not now worked; and sugar, coffee, cocoa, rum, molasses, and arrow-root are the produce for export. As the isle is well watered, the trees are of an uncommon height, and far exceed in loftiness the tallest trees in England. Their tops seem to sweep the clouds, which appear as if skimming lightly through their upper branches. Many are of an enormous girth; and the seeds of different trees, being scattered by the wind, fall into the heart of the same plant, and

thus become incorporated with the tree, on which they are seen growing. The locus, bully, mastic, cinnamon, rose-wood, yellow-saunders, iron-wood, cedar, and gum-tree (the latter of enormous bulk), are the chief timber trees. The rule is in a lieutenant-governor, (now Major Hort,) a legislative council of 8, an executive of 12, and a representative assembly of 20 members.

THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL FOUNDED.—Captain Coram, master of a merchant-ship, having been struck by the frequent instances of infants found deserted by their parents in the streets of London, made the evil so clear to the female nobility of his day, that great subscriptions were raised in addition to a handsome sum of his own, and a charter obtained for the establishment of a hospital, which was completed 1739, and is now considered a national foundation. At the close of life, the kind-hearted Coram was, from repeated losses, supported by the pension of 100*l.* a year, raised by his friends.

VAUXHALL-GARDENS OPENED, 1730, by Mr. Jonathan Tyers. So far back as Anne's reign this was a place of public resort by daylight, under the name of 'Spring-garden in Fox-hall;' and sir Roger de Coverley is recorded in the *Spectator*, to have gone to Fox-hall by water from Temple-stairs, 1712. 'When I considered the fragrant of the walks,' says Addison, 'with the choirs of birds that sang upon the trees, and the loose tribe of people that walked under their shades, I could not but look upon the place as a sort of Mahometan paradise.' Masks were worn there by some visitors; for Addison speaks of a mask tapping Sir Roger on the shoulder, and inviting him to drink a bottle of mead. Tyers, however, gave a new character to the place; and the great Hogarth condescended to paint many subjects for its adornment. Till 1792 the gardens were visited nightly during the summer, at the price of a shilling; when the demand was raised to two. In

1821 the price was four shillings; and in lieu of a paucity of lamps, a very well-selected orchestra, brilliant fireworks, and a general attention to splendour as regarded illumination and amusements, threw the old management into shade, and occasioned the London Wine Company, the new proprietors, to receive their full share of applause. Nevertheless the lovers of old times, and of rational comfort, regarded matters as little benefited by the modern attempts at improvement. Forty years only since, Vauxhall presented a scene not inferior to that which Sir Roger contemplated with satisfaction: it was in fact more orderly, more *élite*, than in his day. The hoops of the drawing-room of St. James's were then not unfrequently seen, and royalty itself did not disdain to mingle in the quiet pleasures of the evening. The more gay had their boxes, wherein mirth and cheerful converse, rather than dissipation, reigned; and there were few who did not acknowledge on the ensuing day the benefit they had derived, both in mind and body, from the preceding night's recreation at Vauxhall. The Barretts (the father married Tyers's grand-daughter) were then the proprietors: their waiters were noted for the better species of civility, that of servants accustomed to attend on 'the quality;' their punch surpassed all other such compounds in judicious admixture; while their ham-sandwiches acquired a fame that has originated a proverb. The orchestra too, filled by singers often strange to the public theatres, was a principal attraction; and Lowe and Beard, Billington and Dignum, Storace and Incedon, with a host of others, capable of giving effect to the finest vocal compositions in the open air, made these gardens most interesting; while the care of the Barretts kept them a most innocent place of resort. But a change again took place at the close of the war with France in 1815. From various causes, and some of them akin to

those which ruined the national theatres, the better classes gradually ceased to frequent Vauxhall-gardens; and they were closed, it was presumed, for ever, at the end of the season of 1840, and the grounds offered for sale. Their name was derived from their possession as an estate by Mrs. Jane Vaux, who built a mansion on them called Stocken, 1615. *Ranelagh-gardens* were opened 1740, on what had been Lord Ranelagh's estate at Chelsea, in imitation of Vauxhall. Their principal attractions were the music performed in a rotunda, public breakfasts, and an exhibition of Mount Ætna in action. The site of the place is now covered by houses. There were also the gardens of *Bagnigge-wells*, and of the *Dog and Duck* (on which latter, Bethlem Hospital, St. George's Fields, now stands), long famous, and oftentimes infamous, places of public resort. Vauxhall-gardens, occupying 11 acres, were purchased by Mr. Fowler for 20,200*l.* in 1841. They are in the Queen's Manor of Kennington, or rather in the Prince of Wales's Duchy of Cornwall, subject to a tithe of five shillings, and an annual quit-rent of 1*l.* 3*s.* 7*d.*

THE MAYOR OF GARRETT.—Garrett is a hamlet between Tooting and Wandsworth, Surrey; and in 1741, its poor inhabitants formed a club to prevent certain encroachments upon their common. It being clear that nothing could be done without money and a lawyer, a purse was agreed to be formed by weekly savings; out of which an attorney of the neighbourhood was to be paid, who was instructed to bring any needful action in the name of 'the Mayor (then a term commonly used for president of meetings by the country people) of Garrett and its inhabitants.' An encroachment of importance being soon after attempted, the villagers were successful, and gained their suit and costs; and as this protected them from further deprivation, and occurred at the moment of the general election for a new parliament after Wal-

pole's resignation, it was determined to celebrate the event for ever by the mock election of a Mayor of Garrett, who should hold office as long as the parliament sat, and then be succeeded by another choice. Sufficient cash was subscribed to enable him to give a dinner to his aldermen at the best public-house in the hamlet, on the day of his inauguration; and it is needless to say that, if the aldermen were only twelve in number, the common-council extended to the whole hamlet, male and female, who aided in drinking the mayor's health with an energy becoming more enduring municipal corporations. The custom has only of late years been discontinued; and Foote's farce is all that is now left to remind us of the Mayor of Garrett.

RISE OF THE SWEDENBORGIANS, 1743.—Emanuel Swedenborg, the son of a Swedish bishop, was born at Stockholm, 1688, and displayed such a taste for mechanics in youth, that Charles XII. employed him at Frederickshall to transport some ships, by machinery of his own invention, over valleys and mountains, fourteen miles. The successor of Charles made him a baron; and after publishing some excellent works on mineralogy, he, in 1742, appeared before the world in the new character of founder of a sect, styled 'The New Jerusalem Church,' alleging 'that the Lord himself had been graciously pleased to manifest himself to his unworthy servant, to open to him a sight of the spiritual world, and to enable him to converse with spirits and angels.' After travelling to various countries to propagate his fanciful opinions, baron Swedenborg died in London, aged 84, 1772. The believers in this 'call' have rapidly increased since his death. They hold God and Christ to be identical and one; that in this unity exists a trinity, consisting of the divinity, the humanity, and the operation of both of Christ, who, they assert, always existed in a human form, and who assumed a material body in order to

redeem the world. This redemption consists in bringing the evil spirits into subjection, and in preparing the way for a more spiritual church. The Scriptures are to be interpreted, not only in a literal, but in a spiritual sense, unknown to mankind until revealed to the baron; a spiritual influence over man, by means of good and bad angels residing within his affections, and continually struggling against each other, is inculcated; and it is asserted that two worlds exist, the natural and the spiritual, which exactly correspond with each other; man at his death entering into the latter, clothed with a substantial, though not a material, body—all which is affirmed to be predicted in the Apocalypse, under the figure of the New Jerusalem descending from God out of heaven.

DEPUTATION OF NORTH-AMERICAN CHIEFS. In the summer of 1730 seven chiefs of the Cherokee tribe of Indians were brought to this country, at their own request, by sir Alexander Cummin, to be presented to George II. On their introduction to his Majesty, they laid what they regarded as their crown and regalia at his feet; and, by an authentic deed, acknowledged themselves his subjects, in the name of all their compatriots, who had vested them with full powers for this purpose. They were amazed and confounded at the wealth and splendour of the British court; they compared the king and queen to the sun and moon, the princes to the stars of heaven, and themselves to nothing. They gave their assent in the most solemn manner to articles of commerce proposed by the lords commissioners for trade and plantations; and after being laden with presents of arms, ammunition, and necessaries, they were reconveyed to their own country, which bordered then on the province of South Carolina.

As it is the author's object to give in this work a sketch of the habits &c. of all known nations, even though some of them may be still semi-

barbaric, he may be allowed here to dismiss the subject of the North American Indians, by giving his own friend's narrative of his captivity, at a somewhat later date (1787) than that of the Cherokee deputation, by the Shawanese tribe, whose habits were similar to those of their allies, the Cherokees. On the first peopling of America by Europeans, these aborigines of the soil were the natural opponents of the foreign settlers; and at length, after continual conflicts, and much oppression, they were found almost exterminated, until taken under the protection of the British conquerors by general Wolfe. They were subsequently drawn away from the English alliance by the French of Lower Canada; and since the establishment of the republic of the United States, they have yearly, cramped in territory, and restrained in every way, again dwindled away. Such of the North American Indians as still maintain the tribal plan are a noble race, devoid of the mean vices of other savages, true to their word, and of an invincible courage: the chiefs are men possessed of the highest principle, and their inferiors display the most strict honesty in all their dealings (such as the sale of skins, &c.) with civilized nations. The writer of the following narrative, Thomas Ridout, Esq., became, subsequently to his captivity, and continued till his decease, an important officer of the British government in Canada.

'I had arrived at Philadelphia from Europe in February, 1787, in order to collect sums due to me from several persons in the United States; and being informed that many of my debtors had gone with their families to the new settlement of Kentucky, near the falls of the river Ohio, I set out in December, from Anapolis in Maryland (where a brother of mine resided), for Fort Pitt, intending to go from thence to Kentucky, as soon as the ice should break up in the spring, and the river become navigable. I had previously agreed with

a friend at Baltimore, who possessed large tracts of land in Kentucky, to meet him in January at Fort Pitt, and accompany him thither. I received letters of introduction from general Washington, colonel Lee of Virginia, and other gentlemen, to their friends in the western settlements; and having collected three or four hundred pounds' worth of merchandise from some of my debtors, in lieu of cash (which was not at that time to be obtained), and forwarded it to Fort Pitt by means of horses, I set out myself on horseback and alone, from Hancock, on the river Potomack, about five miles distant from the warm springs of Virginia, on the 1st January, 1788. The snow at the time was about three feet deep, and the weather clear and very cold.

'To Old Town, on the Potomack, is about 36 miles, and from thence to the entrance of the Allegany mountains about 30; the road that general Braddock cut through the mountains to enable him to pass on to Fort Pitt, and near which latter place he met with so great a defeat. On the evening of the second day of my departure, I entered the mountains, and slept at one Creig's; I proceeded on my way early the next morning, and passed but one house during the day, the weather all the while extremely cold, the snow deep, and but little beaten by travellers. The road lay through dismal vales and over frightful precipices, and its gloominess and melancholy aspect were heightened and increased by large cypress-trees, whose branches overhung it on every side: this particular part is known by the appropriate appellation of 'the shadow of death.' Towards the evening I met seven or eight men riding furiously, evidently intoxicated, and yelling like savages; soon after which I arrived at a solitary house. Notwithstanding its loneliness, the accommodations it afforded were very tolerable; and, as I was informed that I should not see another till towards the evening of the next day, I contrived to make myself comfortable for

the night, which was excessively cold. In the morning I took an early breakfast, and proceeded on my solitary journey through the mountain, the snow being about four feet deep. In the afternoon I became very cold and weary, and looked out anxiously for the house I was to stop at; and at last, to my infinite joy, I discovered it at no great distance. The good cheer and snug lodging I found here were the more relished, by the contrast with the gloominess of the surrounding scene. The next morning I continued my journey, and about noon arrived at the summit of the famed Laurel Hill, from whence all the country to the Ohio, 60 miles distant, lay before me: the day was clear, and the scene, though wild, magnificent. I descended gradually on a straight road, and soon found myself amongst other mountains, which the extreme height of the Laurel Hill (the western extremity of the Allegany) had before reduced to hillocks: in the evening I reached Red-stone Old Fort, lying on the river Monongahela, which is here about 400 yards wide, and slept at a Dutchman's house. This river unites with the Allegany river at Fort Pitt, and forms the Ohio. During the night there fell nearly two feet depth of snow, and the roof under which I slept being old and much decayed, a great quantity was on my bed when I awoke. The road I had to travel on the following day was difficult to find, and without any track. I went many miles out of my way, and it was not until nine o'clock at night, and very dark, that I came to a house; which was a very grateful sight to me, as I had expected to be reduced to the necessity of roving in the woods all the night. My horse partook of my alarm, for he trembled under me prodigiously when the night was coming on. The inhabitants of this house were the most rude and savage in their manners I had ever met with; but the risk and dangers I had escaped, reconciled me at once to my fare. The next day I had company to

Fort Pitt, where I arrived about two in the afternoon, crossing the Monongahela again on the ice: the river here is 500 yards wide. I lodged at the house of a Mr. Ormsby, and received many civilities from the inhabitants of this place, who form a very agreeable society among themselves.

Here I remained till the 12th of March following, when I embarked in one of the boats built at Redstone, for the conveyance of passengers to the falls of the Ohio. Two days before, the ice of the river had broken up with a tremendous noise, and the waters rose in the space of three days, twenty feet perpendicular. Mr. Purviance and myself, with one John Black his servant, together with our horses and baggage, embarked at Fort Pitt. Many other boats were preparing to set out on the same route; and although the ice was yet floating in large masses, we committed ourselves to the furious current. At a town called Wheeling, about 100 miles down the river, we were to take in the other passengers and their baggage: there we stopped on the second day, and immediately took on board those who were waiting our arrival, which raised our number to 20 persons and 16 horses; so that the boat was exceedingly deeply laden. These boats are flat-bottomed, with upright sides and stern, and the front turns up like a skait: they seldom use any sail, but steer them by means of a long oar from the stern, and two or three oars are occasionally used to conduct them; for the stream, which runs at the rate of about five miles an hour, carries them with great rapidity: they continue their course night and day. We stopped, the day after we left Wheeling, for a few minutes, at the mouth of the Meeskingum river, where was a small fort called Fort Harmer, and a garrison of about 50 men. We then proceeded on our way, and our course being nearly southwest, we soon found the weather grow mild and pleasant. At the great Kanawha, on the east side of the Ohio,

we saw eight or ten houses, and went on shore for a few minutes: the soil is a black deep mould, and the Ohio continues nearly the same breadth, that is, about three-quarters of a mile, still rising and flowing in a majestic stream. In the night we were almost upon an island, before we discovered our danger; with the greatest exertions we got clear of it, although not without touching once or twice. The next day it rained throughout, and just at the close of the evening we reached the first settlement in Kentucky, called Limestone: here we went on shore, and almost all of the party left us the next morning, taking their route by land to their respective homes. They pressed me greatly to accompany them, as I had letters from general Washington to their friends, colonel Marshall, and others, who resided in this settlement. I had my baggage brought on shore, and proposed going by land to Lexington, and from thence to the falls of the Ohio; but finding that it did not suit Mr. Purviance to take this route by land, and unwilling to leave him, I returned with my baggage to the boat, and set out with him, our man John Black, and two other men.

The distance of the falls from this place was 170 miles. The weather was remarkably settled, and the moon being at full, and the nights serene and clear, our voyage was rendered very delightful; the spring too began to show itself, and the trees, especially those on the river, were already in leaf. Not often had I felt such satisfaction of heart, as I did on the second morning of our voyage. I had breakfasted, and with a map and travelling compass, was comparing the country around us, reckoning we were then about ten miles in a direct line from the place where those large bones are met with, some of which are to be seen at the British Museum, belonging to an animal, whose species is now extinct, but supposed to be the same as that mentioned by Cæsar in his Commentaries,

and called the Uri. Our tranquillity, however, was soon to give place to the greatest anxiety and alarm ; for on turning a point which opened to our view a considerable extent of the river, we saw, at some distance on the Indian or west side of it, a boat, like our own, amongst the bushes, which appeared to be one that left Limestone a few hours before we did. Whilst we were conjecturing the cause of such apparent delay, we perceived several people running about the shore, and a boat put off full of people, whom we soon, to our surprise and terror, discovered to be Indians, almost naked, painted and ornamented as when at war. They soon came up with us, and about twenty leaped into our boat, yelling and screaming horribly, brandishing their knives and tomahawks, and struggling with each other for a prisoner. A young man, painted black, first seized me by the arm, when another, an elderly man, and who seemed to be a chief, took me from him. This Indian was of a mild countenance, and he gave me immediately to understand that I should not be hurt, holding me by the hand to show his property in me. As we neither did nor could attempt any resistance, none of us at this time suffered any injury in our persons ; but they began immediately to strip us. My companions were soon left almost without covering : several attempts were made to strip me of my clothes, but this was opposed by the Indian who held me : at length he acquiesced in the demands of one who began to be violent, and I lost my hat, coat, and waistcoat. By this time, we had gained the bank of the river, and being landed, were led to a great tree, around which sat the War chief, Nenessica, and about 60 Indians ; their whole party was 90.

To the chief I was presented by his brother, the man who had held my hand. After examining me some time with attention, and conversing with those around him, who eyed me with no less apparent com-

placency, he offered me his hand, and presented his pipe to me ; he then made signs for me to sit down by him, which I did, when several chiefs introduced themselves to me and shook hands with me ; in particular, a Powtawatimie, exceedingly well dressed, after their manner, and one of the best figures I had ever beheld ; he appeared to be about 27 years of age, and was upwards of six feet in height. No other prisoner received the civilities which I did. Whilst I was sitting by the chief, I heard myself called by name, and looking around, saw two young men tied and sitting at the foot of a tree ; they had been taken early in the morning out of the boat which had sailed before us. They said that a lock of hair had been taken from each of their heads, and that they had been tied several hours in the manner they now were, and apprehended they were doomed to be put to death ; and since I seemed to be taken into favour, they begged I would intercede for them. Upon my requesting this favour, the Indians released them. During the remainder of the day the Indians, who were composed of Shawanese, Powtawatimies, Ottawas, and Cherokees, but chiefly of the first, seemed to enjoy their good fortune ; for their plunder exceeded 1500*l.* sterling, as I was afterwards informed. They gave us a portion of the provisions I had taken, and when night approached they renewed their fires. The chief, with the principal warriors, reposed on one side ; the prisoners, amounting to ten men and one black woman, were placed on the other. Some deer-skins were spread on the ground, on which we laid ; and an old blanket was allotted for the covering of two people. I placed myself next to my old friend, Mr. Purviance, who was upwards of 60 years of age : he had been stripped of every thing except his pantaloons and a thin flannel waistcoat ; and as the night was frosty, he suffered much from the cold, though I kept the

blanket entirely over him. The Indian chief, who had conducted me on shore, placed himself by me on the outside, seemingly for my protection. During the night, I myself felt the cold very sensibly, for I had scarcely any covering, and my head was bare and exposed to the sky: my head ached very much; but at length I was relieved by a bleeding at the nose. I slept but little, looking on the scene around me by the mild lustre of a full moon, and comparing my present situation with what it had been but a few hours before.

‘As soon as the sun arose, all were on foot, and assembled around their great chief, who divided the booty among them, apparently to every one’s satisfaction. Among the prisoners was a man of about 45 years of age, by name William Richardson Watson: he had resided several years in the United States, but was said to be an Englishman. Immediately on our landing, the Indians had taken from him 700 guineas; he was of the party that was in the other boat; the Cherokees had him in charge, or rather he had been given over to them. After the above distribution, they arose and threw around his neck a broad belt of black wampurn, and put a bundle containing the toes of deer into his hand, by way of rattle. Two or three Indians placed themselves before and behind him, and as many on each side, and began a song, which appeared to me an invocation; at first in a slow and solemn manner, and soon after in quick time, the poor fellow shaking his rattles all the time. After the ceremony was over, he came near me and said, ‘I am led to think, from what has passed, that I am devoted to death; but, as you appear to be taken into favour, will you accept from me a gold repeating watch, which our enemies have not yet taken from me?’ I replied, ‘that probably my life was in equal danger with his own, and that should I accept the proffered present, it would place me most likely in

greater.’ I therefore declined accepting it. The prisoners were then ordered to seat themselves in a row, fronting the west, on the ground, having the woods immediately in our rear; on my left were two of my companions; next to me on my right was my friend Mr. Purviance, and next to him the other six; opposite to us, on the south-east, was the river. As soon as we were seated, Mr. Purviance began to discourse with me on our present situation, and said, that as hitherto we had not experienced any personal ill-treatment, he hoped we were not in any great danger; it was evident, however, from the bustle among the savages, that some change was about to take place.

‘We remained not long in suspense. A sturdy thick-set Indian, painted black, of a very fierce countenance, with a drawn hanger in his right hand, came towards us, and addressing himself to the outermost man on the left hand, who happened to be the second from me, with a flourish of his weapon made him get up, and giving him a kick, drove him into the woods to the left of us. We all remained silent, every one judging that his end approached. In a few minutes this savage returned, and drove before him the man who had been sitting by me on the left. Mr. Purviance then said to me, ‘I believe, my dear friend, the last moment of our existence is at hand.’ These were my own sentiments also: I waited the return of the Indian for myself as his next victim: words cannot describe what my feelings then were! I saw him approach—he came and stood before me—and after a moment’s pause, (awful to me beyond the power of expression) beckoned to me to rise and follow him. I obeyed the signal: he turned into the woods behind us, and I saw my friend no more!

‘I followed the Indian, step by step, expecting every moment that he would turn upon me, and put me

to death. After walking three or four hundred yards, I perceived the smoke of a fire, and presently several Indians about it. My alarm was not diminished; but, as we came nearer, a white man about 22 years of age, who had been taken prisoner when a lad, had been adopted, and was now a chief among the Shawanese, stood up, and said to me in English, 'Don't be afraid, sir, you are in no danger, but are given to a good man, a chief of the Shawanese, who will not hurt you, but after some time will take you to Detroit, where you may ransom yourself; come and take your breakfast.' What a transition! passing from apparently immediate and certain death, to renovated life! I saw no more of my savage guide, but joined the party seated around the fire, taking their breakfast, of which I partook, and which consisted of chocolate, and some flour cakes baked in the ashes; being part of the plunder they had taken from us. Whilst I was eating, an Indian, painted red and almost naked, had seated himself opposite to me, and watched me with a fierceness of countenance inexpressible; his eyes glowed like fire, and the arteries of his neck were swollen, and nearly bursting with rage. He said something to me in a tone of voice corresponding with his appearance, which was interpreted to me by the white man in the following words: 'He says you are his prisoner, and that it is more easy for him to put you to death, than to tell you so.' I answered calmly (for the extreme danger I had just escaped had prepared me for every event), that I acknowledged myself to be in his power, and that he could do with me as he pleased. This reply being made known to him, his rage seemed to subside, and he said no more to me. The white man now informed me, that in an hour or two we should begin our march, together with the other prisoners, to the village, which was about five days' journey into the woods, in company with about 90

Indians. The weather was dark, gloomy, and cold: we passed over a rapid river, on the body of a tree which had fallen over it, at a considerable height from the water: in passing, my head became giddy, and I apprehended I should fall; but recollecting the yet greater dangers that beset me, I recovered a firm step. About five in the afternoon, we came to a valley through which ran a rivulet, the land rising greatly to the westward, full of large timber, but without underwood: at this place I understood the Indians intended to pass the night in feasting, and drinking a part of the spirituous liquors they had taken from us. As the Indians intended to regale themselves, and drink to intoxication, a party of Cherokees, to the number of twelve, who had deserted from their own nation to reside among the Shawanese, were appointed to take charge of the prisoners during the feast, of which they (the Cherokees) were not to partake: they were strictly enjoined to keep themselves sober. We were, therefore, committed to these Indians, who withdrew to a small eminence a few hundred yards from the main body. When they had kindled a fire, they threw a few half-worn undressed deer-skins on the ground, for us to lie upon, on the west side of the fire; and then proceeded to secure us from making our escape. They began with me, by passing a cord round my body, then between my legs, and under that part of the cord that surrounded the body; then forcing a stake 6 or 7 feet long into the ground, they fastened the cord to it, and on the top of the stake they fixed a small bell, so that I could not stir without its ringing. Lest I should make use of my hands, they put each into a small leathern bag, which they tied round the wrists so tight, that I was instantly in an agony of pain. It was to no purpose to complain; I could not prevail upon them to slacken it; but, ordering me to lie down, they threw over me a small old blanket. My place was the

outermost of the row, next to the drunken Indians, and exposed to the weather, which was very cold and tempestuous. There fell much sleet ; but the agony I suffered in my wrists, haps, and arms, made me insensible almost to any thing else. About midnight, I was roused by the screams and whoops of an Indian from the other encampment, who seemed coming towards us ; his yells and shouts became more and more loud and terrific ; and turning my eyes towards the valley, I perceived by the glimmering lights of the fires and of the moon, an Indian staggering with drunkenness, brandishing a knife in the one hand, and a tomahawk in the other, making all the haste he could towards us, and shrieking most horribly as he approached the spot where I was lying. I doubted not he was bent on murdering the prisoners, and that I should be his first victim : he had already come within one step of me, and his hand was lifted to give the fatal blow, when one of the Cherokees sprang from the ground and caught him round the waist, and, after some struggling, mastered him, and obliged him to retreat, which he did muttering. As my sufferings were extreme from the strictures round my wrists, I entreated the Cherokee to loosen them ; but, giving me a look of fierceness, he laid himself down again, unconcerned at the tortures I endured. In the space of about an hour, the drunken Indian made a second attempt to effect his purpose ; but as he approached, yelling and shouting, two Cherokees laid hold of him as soon as he came near the fire, and tying him neck and heels together, left him wallowing in the snow. At length, the long-wished for morning came, and my hands were set at liberty ; but they were so swollen and black with the stoppage of circulation, that some hours escaped before I could bend my fingers. Soon after the sun had risen, the Indian chief to whom I had been given, made his appearance ;

he seemed about 50 years of age, was a tall slender man, and of a very pleasing and animated countenance. He, smiling, took me by the hand, and called me Nicanah, or 'his friend,' and seeing my attention fixed on a wound over one of his eyes, he, pointing to it, said, 'Ah ! matowesa whiskey,' meaning he had got drunk with wicked whiskey, or spirits, and that the wound was the bad consequence of it. Perceiving that I had no covering on my head, he took about a yard of black silk mode (part of his share of the plunder), and tied it round my head : he then gave me an old blanket, which I fastened about my waist with a skewer. We soon after breakfasted, and began to prepare for our journey into the interior. My horse, which was a very good one, and of an iron-grey colour, they loaded with as much as he could carry : my friend (as I shall call the Indian to whom I belonged, and who never once forfeited his claim to the appellation), made up for himself a load of about fifty or sixty pounds weight, and another small bundle for me of about thirty. Some of the prisoners had iron pots, and very heavy loads were put on them. A body-cloth was given me, and a pair of mokassous, or Indian shoes, in lieu of my leather ones. Our party now consisted of seven prisoners, together with ten Indians. We marched on towards the first village or winter encampment, of which my friend was the principal chief. For two or three days we travelled together in company, during which time some of the Indians turned off with their prisoners to other villages ; so that only another prisoner and myself were together for the rest of the journey. The residue of the Indians, to the number of 80, returned to war against the Americans ; which continued from this period during seven years without intermission.

'When the evening of our first day's journey drew nigh, I dreaded lest I should be treated as I had been the preceding night ; but when we laid

down, which was before a good fire, my friend covered me with a blanket, and only fastened me round the body with a rope, which he drew under himself, and slept upon. He never afterwards used even that precaution, leaving me at full liberty; and frequently, during the nights that were frosty and cold, I found his hand over me, to examine whether or not I was covered. I think it was towards the third evening of our march that we came to the banks of the great river Miami, a very rocky and rapid current, 300 feet in width, which empties itself into the Ohio: the waters were very high. My friend, another Indian, and myself, began to make a small raft to pass over: but as I went awkwardly about my work, the Indians smiled, and allowed me to desist. They soon prepared it, we all three placed ourselves upon it, and with the help of a pole, by way of paddle, we soon gained the opposite shore, having been carried some way down the stream. Shortly after, we encamped on the left bank of a small river, having a steep hill covered with woods on the left: a good fire was kindled, and we supped heartily on some roasted venison, part of our day's sport, for these woods were full of the finest deer, buffaloes, and wild turkeys. During the night, I was much disturbed by the howling of a great number of wolves that occupied the hill; but they did not descend to the fire. In the morning we were joined by others of our party; among the rest was the great war chief, Ne-nessica: when he killed any venison, he always sent me the tongue as a compliment. Walking on the hard frozen ground, and over the roots of beech-trees which run horizontally along the surface of the ground, bruised my feet so much that I could scarcely proceed, having nothing but the thin mokassous to protect them; and although my load was but small, as I have before said, yet, as it acted continually upon my loins, they had become so weak and painful, that I could scarcely stand upright. The

Indians attempted to console me, by observing that we should on the morrow (the fifth day) reach their home by two in the afternoon, pointing to where the sun would be at that hour. When the next morning came, I found myself so extremely sore and debilitated, that, upon making it known to my friend, he took my burden upon his shoulders, in addition to his own, without making the least reproach: I was, however, so much exhausted, that I was but little relieved by this kind action. Yet I advanced as well as I could, till about ten o'clock; my friend then at some distance before us, not out of sight, and the great war chief immediately following me. I found my strength entirely gone, and turning round to the chief, made a sign that I wished to sit down; he pushed me on very angrily. I found I could not proceed, and turning again, made another attempt to obtain his consent to my resting; with great anger he again pushed me forward, and made a stroke at me with his tomahawk, which I avoided by exerting all my strength in springing forwards. At this critical moment I recollected that when they took my coat from me, I secured my pocket-handkerchief, and half a guinea, which I put in a knot in one corner of it, and tied it round my waist, where it now was. With some difficulty and much agitation, I loosened the knot, took the half-guinea, and holding it up between my finger and thumb, the savage smiled, and beckoned me to seat myself on the ground; on which I fell, and immediately fainted. When I recovered, I found the great war chief and my friend both sitting by me. They spoke kindly to me, and gave me to understand, by pointing to where the sun would be at two o'clock, that I should then arrive at the village. I signified my inability to walk, to which they replied by encouraging signs; however, we continued sitting, and soon after perceived some one on horseback galloping towards us: they soon explained to me that

the horse had been sent for on my account. I therefore mounted, and we proceeded slowly towards the village. On our way thither, we crossed a rapid and stony river four hundred feet broad; and when we came within a quarter of a mile, I was ordered to dismount, and myself and another prisoner, named Baffington, were painted red, and narrow ribbons of various colours (part of the plunder) were tied to our hair. The Indians began to fire their guns, and to set up the war-whoop; and rattles being put into our hands, we were ordered to shake them, and sing some words they repeated to us. During this ceremony, several Indians came from the village, and amongst them a black man of about 25 years of age called Boosini, who belonged to, and was the servant of my friend. He was exceedingly insolent, and struck the other prisoner, but said nothing to me: had he struck me, I should certainly have returned the blow, whatever might have been the consequence. The other prisoner and myself were then marched in triumph to the village, shaking the rattles with our hands on entering it. I had to cross a small rivulet; and, in descending the bank, an old woman came out of a wigwam or hut, and gave me a stroke on the neck with a small billet of wood; however, it did not hurt me. Immediately on entering the village, we were conducted to the council-house, at the door whereof we were obliged to sing and shake the rattles for half-an-hour: we were then ordered to enter, which we did without suffering any ill-treatment.

‘In the centre of the room was a fire, and over it hung a kettle with venison and Indian corn boiling. We sat down by the fire, and were for some time left to ourselves: at length two or three women came into the house, and putting some of the contents of the kettle into a bowl, gave us each a wooden spoon to eat with. Salt they had not, but in lieu of that

gave us a piece of maple sugar; in the extracting of which the women were now employed in the adjoining forests. As we had not seen any Indian for some hours, and night began to approach, I began to be uneasy; at length the old chief to whom I belonged, and whose name was Kakinathucca, appeared, and conducted me to his own house. This was about twenty feet long and fourteen wide, the sides and roof made of small poles and covered with bark; the entrance was at the end, and an old blanket hung at the doorway. This man, besides being a war chief, was also a great hunter, and traded with the people at Detroit; whither he went annually with his furs and peltry, accompanied by his wife, Metsigemewa, and their negro. He was owner of ten horses, which he used in transporting his property, &c. Upon coming into the hut, he presented me to his wife; she appeared to be 40 years of age, and was rather corpulent; her looks were extremely savage, and she eyed me with a look of contempt, without uttering a syllable. The man, on the contrary, possessed the most mild and intelligent countenance imaginable. I never once saw him out of humour; and as soon as he arose, which was early, he invariably began to sing. As I was extremely fatigued, my feet not only being swollen exceedingly, but black with the bruises they had received from the rough ground and beech-roots, the Indian planted four forked sticks on the left hand of the entrance, and laying other sticks upon them, covered them with bark and skins, and then gave me a blanket to put over me. I slept soundly all the night, and as might be expected, did not rise very early. The woman at length began to prepare her breakfast. She cut some venison (game of all kinds being in abundance in this part of the country), into small slices, and seasoning it with dried herbs, put the whole into a fryingpan with some bear's oil. She also boiled some water in a small copper kettle, with

which she made some tea in a tea-pot, using cups and saucers of yellow ware. She began and finished her breakfast, without noticing me in the least; when she had done, she poured some tea into a saucer, which, with some fried meat on a pewter plate, she gave me. This was a luxury I little expected to meet with, not only on account of the distance it must have come, but, being a prisoner, I could hardly calculate on such fare. The tea proved to be green, and was sweetened with maple sugar; the meat was very palatable and savoury.

'As soon as I had breakfasted, I returned to my bed, for I could scarcely stand; and in the course of the morning I observed a kettle was put on the fire, and a quantity of venison thrown into it. Some hours now elapsed; at length the Indian brought in three of his friends, to treat them: my master, or rather friend, did not sit round the bowl with his guests, but behind them on the ground, smoking his pipe, and entertaining them with diverting stories, which kept them in continual laughter; and this was his usual custom when he gave a feast. In a few days I was able to walk about; upon my going into other huts (for there were several in the village), the Indian children would scream with terror, and cry out *Themanthe!* which means 'Virginian,' or 'the big knife.' As soon as I understood this term, I desired them not to call me so: upon which I was named *Metticosea*, or 'Englishman.' My friend cautioned me not to go far into the woods, for I sometimes wandered about the village for hours at a time: from this circumstance I was also called *Laquicawace*, which signifies, 'where is he gone?' One morning I felt my situation severely; it was, however, but for a moment, and I have since been surprised at my emotion. My mistress, upon putting the venison into a fryingpan, as usual, and placing it on the fire, pushed the handle of the pan into my hand with such violence, that I felt, with a

sudden sensation of the extremest horror, I was a slave. As I took care, however, to pay attention to her orders in this matter, as well as in fetching water from the rivulet, which passed the house, sometimes making the fire, and at other times plucking the turkeys for her, I insensibly stole into her good graces: she at last permitted me to breakfast with her, and always afterwards behaved to me with complacency; for though her look was savage, her heart was naturally kind and tender.

'To divert my solitary hours, my Indian friend used to bring me books to read, some of which had belonged to me. Among them was Postlethwaite's Dictionary, and the first edition of Telemachus in French, printed in Holland, with notes marking the then living characters for whom the imaginary personages in that excellent work were intended. I was sorry I could not preserve this book; some others were returned to me at the end of my captivity, particularly an old Family Bible I had read in when a child, and which is now in my possession, in very good condition. I now learned that the village which we were in, was the hunting-place of this tribe of the Shawanese Indians; and that, in the course of a fortnight, they intended to set off with their furs, skins, &c. for Detroit, about 600 miles distant, taking the upper part of the Wabash in their way, at which place they were to plant their corn, called by us Indian corn. In the mean time, the women and children were mostly employed in making sugar from the maple-tree (the spring of the year being the only time in which it can be made), about a mile from the village. To this place I was ordered, to assist in getting fuel, and attending the fires: I was for an hour or two employed in cutting wood for the sugar camp, but upon my showing how my hands were blistered, the Indian desired me to desist, and never after imposed any service upon me. Here I found the negro employed in this service for my mis-

dress ; he assumed great superiority over me, and, though he acknowledged me to be a gentleman, he thereupon took delight in vexing and insulting me. I should have treated him with kindness, had his manners been gentle ; but I now steadily opposed him. Upon informing my friend of the negro's behaviour, he replied, 'He is no more than a dog, why do you put up with him ?' My greatest danger arose from this fellow's lies and artifices ; for he made all the young inimical to me, by which means my life was often in imminent danger. The other prisoner was given to a family of the same village ; and he was well treated, though made to work, which was not irksome to him, since he had been previously used to labour. My Indian friend had a principal share in the defeat of the American army, under Sinclair, about four years after this period. He had one daughter, about 18 years of age, called Attowisa, of a very agreeable form and manners, living with a family related to her father, and only visiting him occasionally : some time after my captivity, she and the woman in whose house she lived saved me from the savage fury of an inveterate Indian, who had his hand over me, ready to strike the fatal blow with his tomahawk : they struggled with him, and so gave me time to escape, and conceal myself. I shall in this place declare, to the honour of the savage state, that, during the whole of the time I was with the Indians, I never once witnessed an action that would be termed, in civilized society, indecent or improper amongst any of them, whether young or old.

'At the end of three weeks from my capture, the whole village, having collected their horses and peltry, began their journey towards the Wabash and Detroit. I travelled at my ease, on foot, carrying an unbent bow in my hand ; we seldom went more than 15 or 20 miles a day, setting out after breakfast, about an hour after sunrise, and encamping about the same time before sunset ;

and if we came to good hunting-ground, reposed ourselves for a day. My dress consisted of a calico shirt, made by an Indian woman, without a collar, and reaching a little below the waist ; a blanket over my shoulders, tied round the waste with the bark of a tree ; a pair of good buckskin leggins, which almost covered the thighs ; and, given me by the great war-chief, a pair of mokassons, in which I had pieces of blue cloth to make my step easier ; a body cloth over my legs, and passing over a girdle I wore round my waist ; and a small round hat, in which the Indians placed a black ostrich feather, by way of ornament : and here, be it observed, the smaller the hat is, the more *fashionable*. If we encamped at an earlier hour than usual, or remained a whole day in one place, which we were sometimes obliged to do on account of the rain, this being a remarkably wet spring, the Indian young men and women amused themselves at a game of chance ; this was played sitting in a circle, and holding a blanket open in the centre, in which a certain number of bits of wood, black on one side and white on the other, were thrown up, and according to the number of black or white sides which fell uppermost, the game was reckoned. I tasted bread made of Indian corn but once or twice after leaving the village, and lived almost entirely on boiled or roasted flesh, without salt, but sometimes with dried herbs ; we also met with roots which were found near the surface of the ground, resembling ginger in their appearance, and warm and pleasant to the taste. Dried venison and bear's oil were reckoned great dainties, and such I thought them. Sometimes we slept in the open air without any shelter, at other times under a bark covering. It was one continual forest, at times pathless, and at the best but a track, which none but an Indian could discern : but once in the space of a month did I see more of the heavens than was to be perceived through

the branches of the trees ; and though the open spaces, when we came to them, did not consist of more than 20 acres of natural meadow, I thought each of them a paradise. From the excessive rains that fell, I here caught cold, with fever ; but my friend in a day or two cured me, by some draught he gave me : he also endeavoured to persuade me that my restoration was a great deal owing to his blowing his breath on my forehead with all his force, and repeating some mystic words.

Thus we travelled, day after day, towards the Wabash : we at length drew nigh to a village, where I was informed a great council was to be held concerning me, and for the examination of my papers and letters. We encamped within five or six miles of it ; and the next day my friend, the chief, accompanied by half a dozen more Indians and myself, all mounted on horseback, rode to the village where the council was to be held. On our way thither, we put up a flock of wild turkeys ; having no fire-arms, we hunted them down ; and having caught a very large one, weighing about 25 pounds, it was tied alive to my back, as I rode, and thus we galloped helter-skelter to the village. Upon our arrival, several chiefs, to the number of 50 or upwards, opened the council ; my papers were read by an interpreter, a white man, who several years before had been taken prisoner. After much sober discussion, in which it was declared that I was an Englishman, and not an American, they broke up, after allowing my master to take me to Detroit, there to obtain my ransom. Towards the evening there was a dance of young women before the council-house, to the beat of a drum, and the sound of their voices ; they made signs to me to join them, but my friend advised me not to go. I had by this time acquired a tolerable knowledge of their language, and began to understand them, as well as to make myself intelligible. My mistress, as I have before mentioned,

loved her dish of tea ; with the tea-paper I made a book, stitched it with the bark of a tree, and with a yellow ink of hickory ashes, mixed with a little water, and a pen made with a turkey-quill, I wrote down the Indian names of visible objects ; the negro, in his moments of good humour, explaining to me that which was difficult to be comprehended. In this manner I wrote two little books, which I carried in a pocket I had torn from my clothes, and wore round my waist, tied by a piece of bark ; generally elm-bark was used on such occasions, as it may be divided into numberless small strips, which are very strong. It was at this council I was told that my gold repeating-watch, with the chain and seal, were safe in the possession of a woman in the neighbourhood. Early next morning I went to her hut, about a mile distant ; she showed them to me, and promised to keep them in safety for me till I was liberated, and could redeem them. This accordingly happened ; for in the course of the ensuing winter, when I was at Montreal, they were restored to me, all in good condition, paying for the same about five guineas : they are still in my possession. We remained a day or two longer in this village than we otherwise should have done, on account of a root found here somewhat resembling a potato ; to me, who had but once tasted bread for six weeks, this was indeed a luxury. The bread I speak of had been made a few days before, of a little wheat in their possession, and had gone through the following process, in which I bore a part. Into a wooden mortar, made of the sassafras-tree, a tough wood, about a quart of wheat was put at a time ; then being moistened with a little warm water, it was pounded with a wooden pestle, till the husks separated ; it was next sifted in a tolerably fine sieve, made of small splits of wood ; being then kneaded with a little water, it was placed upon the hot hearth, and covered with ashes until baked.

‘We now resumed our journey, the party consisting of 20 men, 40 women and children, and upwards of 20 horses loaded: my master was the chief of this party, being all of his village. As the herbs began to cover the ground, the narrow path became hidden by them, and the Indians, skilled as they are, missed the direct route to the Wabash, or to that part of it called the White River; we therefore, travelled a day or two without a track, but at length recovered it. In general, the weather was very rainy, which swelled the rivulets higher than usual: one evening, as we were about to encamp, we came to a morass about 300 yards across; and desirous to encamp on the opposite side, the horses were driven into it; but they were so entangled with the mire, roots of trees, and water, that the Indians were obliged to unlade them, and convey their baggage on their shoulders through the swamp. It was nearly midnight before we got over; the Indians were excessively enraged, all the while uttering their wrath against the Americans, who were, they said, the occasion of their misfortunes. They saw I was alarmed, and took every means to ease my mind, assuring me they were only enraged against the Americans, who had come to their village on the Scioto River, which empties itself into the Ohio, the preceding autumn from Kentucky, and in a time of profound peace, and by surprise destroyed it, together with many of their people, their cattle, and their grain; which treatment was the cause, they said, that ‘the hatchet was raised against them.’ We continued to pursue our route by easy journeys; and I remarked that our numbers daily diminished: and observing this to the chiefs, they told me, that provisions began to be scarce, the woods not affording the usual quantity of wild animals. The small party I was with bore a share of this scarcity; we had killed two wild cats, and though not esteemed by the Indians good

food, they were very acceptable at this time. At length our family, consisting of the chief, his wife, myself, and the negro, travelled alone; in our usual manner we encamped early in the evening, and set forward again in the morning after breakfast. One delightful morning, as soon as the sun arose, my friend walked a few paces from his tent (for occasionally he made use of a Russia sheeting one), and seemed to address himself to that glorious orb in a manner, style of words, and accent, that I had not witnessed before; his whole conduct was, to a degree, dignified and impressive. Having arrived within half a mile of the village, situated on the White River, which empties itself about seven miles lower down into the Wabash, he directed us to stop, and went himself thither to prepare for me, as I afterwards learned, a good reception. At the place where we stopped there were two poles from 15 to 20 feet high, standing upright, the bark stripped off, the one painted red and the other black; they were called war poles; and indicated that prisoners had been brought in. I should have mentioned, that about a week after I was taken prisoner, several rich suits of clothes were brought to this village, belonging to some French gentlemen, taken about the same part of the Ohio where I had been captured; as they made resistance, all were killed. They proved to be a mineralist, botanist, and mineralogist, about to explore the country, for which purpose they had wintered a few miles above Fort Pitt. I had been acquainted with them, and once had even thought of joining their party. In the course of an hour the chief returned, and bade us follow him; he led me through the village, and the Indians presented themselves at the doors to look at me, but did not speak. Having crossed a river about 200 yards wide, flowing in a gentle stream about three feet deep, over a fine gravelly

bottom, we encamped on the other side, at a small distance below the village; the rest of our people had arrived and encamped here a few days before us, and amongst them, the white man, Baffington. The soil was very rich, and the scenery around, delightful: a large council-house was begun to be built in this place, in the construction of which the Indians had employed much skill, ingenuity, and taste: here we were to plant corn and pumpkins for their winter's food, and then to proceed by the way of the Miami village, a journey of 500 miles.

'About sunset of the same day we arrived, I heard the Indian war-whoop on the other side of the river, at the village through which we had passed; the Indians of our party immediately concluded that a prisoner had been made and brought in. Some of our party, including the negro, went thereupon to the spot; when the latter returned, some time after, he said it was a young man, about 20, of the name of Mitchell, who had been taken on the Ohio, together with his father, a Captain Mitchell, an American; that the father and son had been separated on the way, as they belonged to different nations; that it was probable the father would be liberated, but that the son had been given to a man, who was determined to burn him at a village about six miles distant, where the White River unites with the Wabash. I was also informed that the war raged exceedingly; and that many prisoners had been taken by the Indians, who began to be enraged at the loss of some of their own friends. Two or three days elapsed before I heard any thing further of the poor young man, till one morning, about break of day, I was awakened by an old woman, the same who had struck me with a billet of wood as before mentioned; she came to our hut and said, 'the *Virginian* was to be burnt.' Seeing that I was alarmed, as I thought that I was alluded to, she said it was the

prisoner taken a few days before, and not me 'whom they loved much.' Immediately my friend, his wife, and the negro quitted the hut, and went to the opposite side of the river, and I was soon left alone in the camp.

'For some time I did not see any one moving; but about two hours after sunrise, I perceived several Indians assembled at the door of a house near the water-side, opposite to where I was, and soon after saw the young man run out of the house naked, his ears having been cut off, and his face painted black, the Indians following with the war-whoop and song, driving him before them through a valley. They then ascended a hill, a little lower down the stream; and as soon as they had gained the summit, I heard the young man scream, and the Indians give a shout. I perceived a smoke, and judged that the fire was preparing; after a short interval, I heard the poor victim utter another shriek; his cries were repeated without intermission for a few minutes; the Indians every now and then shouted, and during the intervals of torture, I heard the groans of the poor sufferer, and then his shrieks recommenced under new tortures; these tortures, with remissions, continued about three hours, when his cries altogether ceased. To express my feelings during this scene would be utterly impossible: I sickened at heart, unable to resist the most melancholy sensations, and beginning to think my own fate might be similar. The Indians did not return till the afternoon; at the approach of evening they fired their guns, and with large twigs beat their wigwams on the top and sides, shouting, which the negro informed me was to drive away the spirit of the prisoner they had burnt; a ceremony which continued for three succeeding nights. The tent or hut in which I slept was roofed with bark or poles, the sides were also covered in the same manner, but not the ends. The chief and his wife slept on a raised

bed on one side of the fireplace, which was in the middle, I slept on the other side on a bear's skin, on a bench raised from the ground; and the negro, wrapt in a blanket, reposed on the ground, by the fire. During the night I was aroused by the shrieks of the latter; calling to him to inquire the cause, he said he had been dreaming that the young man they had burned had come to him in a menacing manner, and asked him what injury he had done him to have been tortured by him?

'I soon found that *my* situation became dangerous, and that the Indian, to whom poor Mitchell had belonged, wanted also to get me into his power; he used to beset the hut where I was, so that I was compelled to hide myself for many hours together under the shelving banks of the river, couched amongst the weeds, to avoid him. I had crossed the river several times with my friend and his family, to prepare a spot of ground for his corn, near the village: it was on one of these occasions that the bloody-minded savage had first seen me; I was obliged to recross the river, and fly for shelter to a house built of round logs, near the spot where Mitchell had suffered; here I obtained the protection of a chief, named Papapaaniway, who concealed me from my enemies by a curtain, when they were in the house; for my friend was not sufficiently powerful to afford me protection. Papapaaniway advised him, if he wished to save me, to set off immediately for Detroit; accordingly, in a few days, my friend collected his horses and peltry, and with his wife and negro proceeded with me thither, by way of the Miami village, where I understood was a trading-post,—several traders, English and French, living there. I was on horseback. We soon entered the woods; the musquitoes all the while so troublesome, that we got no rest, either by night or day, notwithstanding the smoke we made to drive them away; and after, I think, four days' journey, we

arrived at a branch of the river, much swollen with rain. We crossed with difficulty, and encamped on a plain, sprinkled, as it were, with Indian butts. I slept soundly that night, in the pleasing expectation that I was drawing near my deliverance. In the morning, as soon as it was light, my friend and his wife went out among their acquaintances: the latter returned in about an hour, with the Indian who had burned Mitchell, and who had followed me thither in the hope of getting me into his power. I shuddered at the sight of him; he and my mistress were both of them half intoxicated; they sat down upon the ground, fronting each other, relating their misfortunes, and crying in chorus, as is their custom when drunk. I was standing behind the man, and soon discovered that their discourse was concerning me: my mistress said many things in my favour, but to no purpose; and seeing him grow angry, she had sufficient recollection and kindness, as her arms were about his neck, to beckon to me, unobserved by him, to get out of his way. I waited not a second bidding, but where to go I knew not; I perceived that every one I met was drunk; however, I took shelter in a house, and as soon as I entered, recognised, to my no small joy, my master's daughter, and the woman she lived with. I was relating to them my perilous situation, when, to my great surprise and terror, the young man, who had first laid his hand upon me in the boat, entered, and claimed me as his property, by right of war. I endeavoured to escape, at which he lifted up his tomahawk to kill me; the two women flew again to my succour, and withheld his arm till I got out of the house. I immediately fled to the river, which was not far distant, and, running under the bank, perceived two sober Indians sitting; I immediately placed myself between them.—I related to them my situation as well as I was able; they were Delawares, whose village was in the neighbourhood, and

said they would protect me. Whilst sitting between them, the Indian from whom I had just escaped, and who was called Black Fish, came down to the bank of the river, about a hundred yards from us, apparently in quest of me: I pointed him out to the Indians, and sat in great trepidation; at length, I was restored to some degree of quiet by seeing him ascend a hill; and thus I was happily relieved from my wretched state of suspense. Soon after came up the white man (Nash) who had announced my safety on quitting my friend, Mr. Purviance; I told him my danger, and he promised he would get a horse, and take me over the river to the house of the Shawanese chief, Great Snake, a mile or two distant, where I should be in safety. He left me for the purpose of getting a horse, and after some time, which to me appeared almost an age, I saw him a little lower down, cross on horseback. I was afraid he was going to leave me, but it was only to try the passage, for the river was hardly fordable. He soon came to me with the horse; I mounted before him, and after passing two or three drunken parties of Indians lying on the shore, we came to the ford, and got over in safety. We then rode along on the other side, and passed a fine plantation, well stocked with cattle, belonging to a Shawanese chief, called Blue Jacket; he commanded the party who afterwards defeated the American general, Sinclair. We soon came to the house of the Great Snake, who received me with kindness, and assured me of his protection; he was an elderly man, robust, and rather corpulent; his wife, a pretty-looking woman, nearly his age, walked very stately, with a handsome staff and a gold head to it. He ordered a bear's skin and blanket for me alongside his own bed, and till my departure three days after, he treated me with the greatest kindness. During this time I was informed that another council would be held upon me, in which it was to be determined whether or not

I should be taken to Detroit and ransomed; the important day accordingly came.

The Indians having assembled, I was conducted to the council; the meeting was under the authority of a captain John, a Shawanese chief, before whom my case was to be decided; one Simon Girty, now living on Detroit river, acted as interpreter. I perceived that my master and friend was much dejected, and that he avoided speaking to me; but the women endeavoured to cheer me, by saying I should not be hurt. The council was at length opened, and the Indian who had burned Mitchell, contended for me; he insisted that I was a spy, and that I knew the whole country; much was said, and my papers and letters were again brought forward, read, and explained. At length, after a cool and deliberate hearing, the chief pronounced my discharge, and told my friend he might set out with me as soon as he chose. His eyes sparkled with joy, when relating the result of the deliberations of the council. He would have deferred our departure till the morrow, for the Indian traders who lived on the other side of a river, which also formed a junction here with the other two, had long expected me, but dared not intercede for me while my life was at issue. After urging him with all my power to set off immediately, my friend got a canoe, and took me over to the trader's village, called Fort Miami, where both the English and French gentlemen were waiting with open arms to receive me, as they had been already acquainted with the chiefs' decision in my favour. The names of the English were Sharp, Martin, Parkes, and Ironside. Mr. Sharp conducted me to his house, gave me a shirt and a Canadian frock, a hat, trousers, and shoes; and I remained with them three days. It was here I found my Bible, several other books, a German flute, and other articles; but

a tortoiseshell box, inlaid with pearl, in which were my mother's wedding-ring and a gold coin of the emperor Nero, weighing about four dwts., and in great perfection, was lost to me, alas! for ever; the latter was given me by a lady of Libourne in France, and it had been found with many others at Santagne. A French gentleman, of Miami, lent my friend, on my account, his large canoe, to carry us with the peltry to Detroit, distant about 257 miles by water. We embarked early on Sunday morning, together with his wife and the negro, taking also two Indian women, whom we put on shore at a village two miles down the river. Having descended about fifteen miles, we stopped at a white man's house, who was an interpreter amongst the Indians, where I naturally spoke of my deliverance in terms of joy; but I thought he seemed not much to encourage my hopes, for he knew the dangers which yet surrounded me, whilst I was happily ignorant of them. On my way down the Miami to the mouth which empties itself into Lake Erie, we passed several parties of Indians returning from Detroit; they were generally drunk, and I was in continual terror until we had separated. At length we got to the falls, where there was a house belonging to a captain M'Kee, deputy-superintendent of Indian affairs, and of a Mr. Elliot; they were not there, but we received kind treatment, and victuals from the Indians of their respective families. Soon after leaving those houses, we reached the lake, and after coasting the west end of it for about 38 miles, we entered the Detroit river, a few miles up, where was another house of Mr. Elliot's; he did not happen to be here either; but we were kindly treated. The next day we ascended the Detroit, and passed the night upon an island, where there were several Indian families; and early the next morning, being Sunday, we arrived

at Detroit. My friend introduced and presented me to captain M'Kee, who received me with much civility, and with whom I breakfasted; he then accompanied me to the commanding officer, captain Wiseman of the 53d regiment, and introduced me to him. By this gentleman, and by all the regiment, I was received as a brother. A bed was provided for me in the government-house. I messed with the officers, and every one strove to do me acts of kindness. A Mr. Hughes, lieutenant of the regiment, gave me ten guineas for my pocket; a captain Haughton gave me clothes, and a Mr. Robinson, merchant, lent me 100*l.* New York currency; and as the 53d were in a few days to descend to Montreal, they offered me a passage with them, which I gratefully accepted. Several gentlemen at Detroit invited me kindly to their houses: viz., commodore Grant, Mr. Macombe, Dr. Harfey, Mr. Askin, and others. I think it was on the Sunday of my arrival that I dined at Mr. Macombe's; whilst at dinner Mr. Parkes arrived from the Miami village; his relation of what took place there after my departure, convinced me that the hand of an Almighty Protector had guided me through all my dangers. He said I had just left Mr. Sharp's house, when a party of young Indians, with Black Fish at their head, came to the house in quest of me; he immediately said that I was his property, and he would have me; Messrs. Sharp and Parkes assured them I was not there; Black Fish insisted upon searching the house, which was permitted; being disappointed in not finding me there, they searched other houses. Mr. Sharp then told them I had gone away; "By which route?" asked Black Fish in a rage; he was answered that I had gone up the river to St. Joseph's. This delayed the time; and in the while, God's providence conducted me in safety down the river, amongst unseen and

unexpected dangers; for at the village where we first landed to put two women on shore, Black Fish and his party resided. Between the Miami village and this place the river forms an arc; and the road is the chord of that arc; we thus passed unobserved by the savage, who was on that road; the banks also at the lower village are steep. In a few days I embarked with the 58d regiment; on my way to Niagara, I saw its stupendous falls; at that place we continued two or three days, where I was treated kindly by colonel Hunter, who then commanded a battalion of the 60th regiment. This officer was afterwards governor of Upper Canada, and commander-in-chief of both Canadas. About the middle of July, 1788, I arrived at Montreal, where I received great civilities from sir John Johnstone, captain Grant, and many other gentlemen, and from lord Dorchester at Quebec. This adventure, joined with other vicissitudes I had experienced, induced me to fix my residence in Canada; where I have now the honour of acting under the government of his Britannic majesty.

'In the year 1799, my friend Kakinathucca, accompanied by three more Shawanese chiefs, came to pay me a visit at my house in York Town; he regarded myself and my family with peculiar pleasure; and my wife and children contemplated with great satisfaction the noble and good qualities of this worthy Indian. It is almost superfluous to add, he did not return home without bearing a testimony of my gratitude. He died about the year 1806, under the hospitable care of Matthew Elliott, esq., superintendent of Indian affairs, at Amherstburgh, at the entrance of the Detroit river.

'Amongst the many dangers I escaped, I ought to mention the repeated attempts made by an Indian, a young man, at the instigation of the negro, to kill me. This behaviour to me kept me always upon my guard;

but, on my way from the Miami village to Detroit, the negro informed me, without noticing the part he had taken, that the Indian had frequently attempted to kill me, but had so often been prevented, and his plans frustrated, that he declared he could not execute his purpose, for that the 'Great Spirit evidently protected me.'

'The idea the Indians had that I knew their country, and the nations around, took its rise from my showing them, on the maps of North America, in Postlethwaite's Dictionary, that part where we then were, together with the different nations inhabiting the country; and having a small compass, I noticed to them the direction which each respective nation bore from us. This compass was now in the possession of my master. Not being able to comprehend its action, they called it a *Manitou*, by which they mean 'a spirit,' or something incomprehensible and powerful: this happened when we lay encamped at the natural meadow, where I was attacked by fever.

'Nash, the white man, told me, that Mr. Purviance had been taken into the woods immediately after our sad parting, and there beaten to death; whether because he offered resistance I could not learn. I have, therefore, ample cause for adoring that All-powerful Being, whose providence watched over me on all occasions during my perilous abode among savages, for sparing a life so often doomed to apparently inevitable destruction.'

Besides the Indian tribes alluded to on the borders of the United States, there are numerous inferior hordes still addicted to savage life, occupying the shores of the Pacific ocean; while the northern coast of America, discovered in recent days, bordering the vast expanse of the Arctic ocean, is inhabited by the Esquimaux, a peaceful and intelligent race, who subsist by fishing, or by chasing, with a peculiar sort of wolf-

dog, the amphibious animals abounding on their coast.

STAGE COACHES FIRST IN USE, 1744.—Private coaches had been common in England in the early part of James I.'s reign: hackney-coaches too were then established: and private individuals now ventured to convey passengers from one town to another with all imaginable care and solemnity, the horses rarely going beyond a foot-pace. It was reserved for comparatively modern times to attempt a trotting ride; and there are still living those who once rejoiced in a three days' journey between Oxford and London, or in the four days' funeral progress of the 'long Salisbury,' as it was aptly denominated, before entering into which it was usual for the passengers to make their wills. There were no more than six stage-coaches kept constantly at work in England in the year 1762; at which period thus writes Mr. John Cresset of the Charter-house: 'These stage-coaches make gentlemen come to London on every small occasion, which otherwise they would not do but upon urgent necessity; nay, the conveniency of the passage makes their wives often come up, who rather than come such long journeys on horseback, would stay at home. Here, when they come to town, they must presently be in the mode, get fine clothes, go to plays and treats; and by these means get such a habit of idleness and love of pleasure, that they are uneasy ever after.' What, however, would Mr. John Cresset say to the Jehu-like coachmanship of our own day, which has blotted out all traces of the ancient graver mode, much in the way that the scientific Lardner predicts the process of discovery will throw into shade all the wonders of the steam-engine. Railroads too are called in aid, and locomotive carriages scorn to be dragged by dull horses; so that there is already no knowing how to calculate distances by time. It is only recently that a person went to Liverpool from Man-

chester, thirty miles, purchased and took back with him to Manchester on the railroad, 150 tons of cotton; this he immediately disposed of, and the article being liked, an offer was made to take another such quantity. Off he starts again, and actually that evening delivered the second 150 tons; having travelled 120 miles in four journeys, and bought, sold, and delivered, thirty miles off, at two distinct and consecutive deliveries, 300 tons of goods in twelve hours! What would Mr. John Cresset of the Charter-house say to this?

WESTMINSTER BRIDGE was completed 1750, at a cost of 426,650*l*. It is 1223 feet long and 44 wide, and has fifteen arches large and small, the centre one being 76 feet wide, and the two smallest 25. M. Labyliè, a Swiss, was the architect; and the work, at the time of its erection, was esteemed one of the noblest structures of the kind in the world.

THE PYROMETER INVENTED BY MUSCHENBROECK, a Dutchman, for measuring the expansion of bodies by heat. It has been of essential service in the manufacture of machines required to be exempt from the alternations of heat and cold, such as the pendulums of clocks, and measures of yards or feet. The expansion of bars of different metals, of the same dimensions, and by the same degree of heat, is found by the pyrometer to be—Iron 60, gold 73, copper 89, brass 95, silver 103, lead 149: so that iron, being the least rarefied of any of these metals, is most proper for the purposes mentioned.

SOCIETY OF ANTIQUARIES INCORPORATED, 1751.—So long back as Elizabeth's reign, a body so called used to meet at sir Robert Cotton's house, to promote researches into British antiquities and history; but James I. being jealous of the plan, supposing it a political society which watched the secret designs of government, dissolved it. It revived, however, in the reign of George I.; and a charter was obtained from George II., empowering the body to have a

seal, and statutes, and to hold lands to the yearly value of 1000*l*. The inquirer in this branch of knowledge furnishes the historian with his best materials, while he distinguishes from truth the fictions of a bold invention, and ascertains the credibility of facts; and to the philosopher he presents a fruitful source of ingenious speculation, while he points out to him the way of thinking, and the manners of men, under all the varieties of aspect in which they have appeared.

ELECTRICITY AND LIGHTNING DISCOVERED TO BE IDENTICAL.—Dr. Stuber, in his supplement to the life of Dr. Franklin, thus relates the philosopher's important discovery: 'It was not until the summer of 1752, that he was enabled to complete his grand and unparalleled discovery by experiment. The plan which he had proposed was, to erect on some high tower, or other elevated place, a sentry-box, from which should rise a pointed iron rod, insulated by being fixed in a cake of resin. Electrified clouds passing over this, would, he conceived, impart to it a portion of their electricity; which would be rendered evident to the senses by sparks being emitted when a key, the knuckle, or other conductor, was presented to it. Philadelphia at this time afforded no opportunity for trying an experiment of the kind. While Franklin was waiting for the erection of a spire, it occurred to him that he might have more ready access to the region of clouds by means of a common kite. He prepared one by fastening two cross sticks to a silk handkerchief, which would not suffer so much from the rain as paper. To the upright stick was affixed an iron point. The string was, as usual, of hemp, except the lower end, which was silk. Where the hempen string terminated, a key was fastened. With this apparatus, on the appearance of a thunder-gust approaching, he went out into the commons, accompanied by his son, to whom alone he communicated his intentions, well know-

ing the ridicule which awaits unsuccessful experiments in philosophy. He placed himself under a shade to avoid the rain, his kite was raised,—a thunder-cloud passed over it,—no sign of electricity appeared. He had almost despaired of success, when suddenly he observed the loose fibres of his string to move towards an erect position. He now presented his knuckle to the key, and received a strong spark. On this experiment depended the fate of his theory.

If any one be exposed to a thunder-storm *out of doors*, let him avoid the shelter of trees, and other lofty objects: if in a boat on a river, let him lie along at the bottom, and land as quickly as he can. Both trees and water are conductors of electricity: so are elevated objects of every kind. Oaks are especially conductors of the fluid, from the quantity of iron which enters into their composition, and which is held in solution by the sap: hence the lightning so frequently scathes, and even kills the oak. If *within doors*, bed is the safest place, as the blankets and feathers are bad conductors: *when up*, the windows should be shut down, and the fireplace quitted for the middle of the room: the air from without, and even the heated air of the chimney, are good conductors, and the fire-irons still better. This is presuming the floor has a carpet, the thicker and more woolly the better,—on which let the timid take their station. Above all, let them be calm, and trust in that Providence whom the storm obeys; without which all their precaution may be vain.

RELIGIOUS UNIFORMITY ENFORCED IN THE CHANNEL ISLANDS, 1755.—These islands, the only relics of the duchy of Normandy which remain to the English crown, are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Serk, Herm, and Jethou; and they lie about 18 miles to the west of Normandy, and 84 to the south of Portland in Devonshire. The government of them

all is out of the influence of the English legislature, unless in specific instances; but in church matters they form a deanry in the diocese of Winchester.

JERSEY, the Roman *Cæsarea*, is 12 miles long, and 6 broad, with a population of 37,000. It is defended naturally by rocks and quicksands; its valleys are fertile, and have plenty of cattle and small sheep, the latter famous for their sweet meat, and fine wool. St. Helier, St. Aubin, and Gorey are its three towns; and the isle is divided into 12 parishes. The states of Jersey consist of the governor and the bailli of the royal court, both appointed by the crown; the twelve judges of the royal court (the court of judicature for the island in civil and criminal cases), elected to office for life by the suffrage of the rate-payers; the rectors of the parishes, appointed to their livings by the governor; and the twelve constables, elected every three years, one for each parish, by the inhabitants. The officers of the crown have seats, and can speak, but cannot vote. The church of the island, which has twelve livings, all in the governor's gift, is under a dean, who is rector of one of the parishes. The agricultural produce of Jersey, potatoes, apples, cider, butter, cows, and other live stock, is sent to England; but the articles required for home consumption are in a considerable degree supplied from France—the duties on importation being of a privileged smallness, as respects all the Channel islands.

GUERNSEY, extending from east to west in form of a harp, is $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles long from south-west to north-east, and $12\frac{1}{4}$ broad from east to west; and has a population of 25,000. The soil is more fertile than that of Jersey; but the improvement of the land is checked by the minute subdivision of property. The greatest farm is of 74 English acres; a man having 30, is thought a large farmer; and the holdings commonly run from 5 to

12 acres. Oats, beans, and rye are seldom raised, as they can be imported cheaper than they can be grown; the breeding of cows, however, is strictly attended to by the farmers, the dairy being their chief source of profit. The cultivation of flowers is carried on with success; and the Guernsey lily (a native of Japan) proves the temperate nature of the winter of the isle. Guernsey is not so well wooded as Jersey: it is divided into ten parishes, and the only town is St. Peter's Port, where is Elizabeth college, originally one of that queen's grammar-schools, and now the chief seminary of the island for classical, mathematical, and divinity students. Of all the Channel isles, Guernsey is the head, as regards society; though its extraordinary exclusiveness, and division into twentiers, fortiers, and sixtiers, has excited both the notice and ridicule of visitors. One of the grand boasts of the people is that they have never, like the English, been conquered; their territory having been, they say, the birthright of England's conqueror. The English wish all joy to the Guernsey folk on this score, but think they have more cause to rejoice in their exemption from customs duties; which enables them to make lozenges and sugarplums, that forestal, by their cheapness, the best productions of the London confectioners. The English still confess themselves conquered in this particular by the Channel islanders. Sir John Doyle, who was lieutenant-governor of the isle in 1808, was one of its greatest benefactors, having given it roads, drained it, and reclaimed much of its land from the sea; and though little praised for his public spirit at the time, an obelisk has now been erected to his memory. Guernsey has a political constitution of its own. The legislative body is 'the States of Deliberation,' which are composed of the bailiff of the royal court, who is speaker; the procureur, or attorney of the royal court; the rectors of

parishes; the constables of parishes, one from each, who are mere delegates, voting according to the instructions given them by the constituents; and the jurats, or judges of the royal court. The bailiff and procureur are nominated by the crown; the rectors are presented by the governor; the constables and the jurats are elected by the islanders. The money required for the public expenses is voted by 'the States,' though that body cannot levy any new tax or subsidy, except on great emergencies, without the royal permission. The general taxes are levied for parochial as well as general purposes, and are assessed upon capital of almost every kind, including capital in the British or foreign funds, provided it belongs to an individual domiciled in Guernsey. Pensions, salaries, professional income, half-pay, &c., are not taxed. The chief court of justice in the island is the royal court, which consists of the bailiff and twelve jurats, the former appointed by the crown, the latter by the islanders. There is an appeal in certain cases to the king in council. Judicial proceedings are conducted in the language of the island. Norman customs and ancient precedents form the basis of the civil jurisprudence, which is a complex mixture of Norman and English law. The power of the royal court is very extensive and undefined. The governor of the island is of course, appointed by the crown.

ALDERNEY (the Roman *Riduna*) is nearest of the isles to Normandy, being 7 miles west of Cape la Hogue. It is only 8 miles in circuit, scarcely 4 long, or 1½ broad, and has a population of barely 1500—and that a decreasing one, through the want of trade and employment. The climate is mild and healthy, with a highly fertile soil in the valleys, which abound in excellent corn and potatoes. Its cows are the best milk-producers in the world, and are distinguished from

those of the other isles by being remarkably small, and straight in the back. 'The town,' which is nameless, and is the only cluster of houses in Alderney, is situated in a beautiful valley in the centre of the island, and has a church; and 6 miles west lies the cluster of rocks called 'The Caskets,' whereon are three lighthouses the men of which are paid by the Trinity-house. It was on these rocks that prince William, only son of Henry I., perished by shipwreck, 1119, and that, in 1744, the *Victory*, of 110 guns, was lost, with 100 men. The civil power in Alderney is vested in six jurats, who are chosen by the people, and hold their offices for life, unless removed for misbehaviour. These, with twelve 'douwainiers,' representatives of the people, form a sort of local legislature, the douwainiers having only the power of deliberating, not of voting; neither is this power possessed by the governor of Guernsey or his lieutenant, though the presence of one of these is requisite. The same jurats, the eldest acting as president, with the king's procurator and advocate (the last a barrister), and the greffier or registrar, nominated by the governor, constitute the court of justice; from which, however, an appeal lies to the royal court at Guernsey, and, in the last resort, to the king in council. In criminal cases, the court at Alderney only collects and transmits evidence to the superior court at Guernsey; where the sentence is pronounced and carried into execution. The local militia is composed of four companies of infantry, and a brigade of artillery. The men are furnished with clothing and accoutrements at the cost of the government, but receive no pay when called out. They are excellent marksmen. The officers are appointed by the lieutenant-governor of Guernsey. The militia and regular troops together may amount to 300 men.

SEAK, called Gers by the French, lies 7 miles east of Guernsey, and

is so contracted near the centre, as to be almost two islets. The whole is a strong natural fortification, presenting from the sea the resemblance of an inaccessible wall of rock, nearly 200 feet in height. At a small expense it might be rendered impregnable. It consists of a single manor, comprehending, besides other land, 40 copyhold farms of about 15 acres each, which cannot be divided either in case of sale or descent. This checks the increase of the population, which has consequently taken place only on such land as is not copyhold. The only town is named Serk, where is a church, built in 1820, to which the lord of the manor presents. The isle, in civil, military, and ecclesiastical affairs, is a dependency of Guernsey; but a power of making local enactments is vested in the lord of the manor and the forty copyholders, who form a little parliament that meets three times in a year. The lord has a veto on its deliberations. He appoints a senechal as a judge of the island; and there is an appeal from his court to the royal court of Guernsey. All the inhabitants above sixteen years of age are obliged to bear arms, and constitute the militia of the island, about 100 strong.

HERM, distant $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Guernsey, is a mile and a half long, by half a mile broad. Its coast is rich in corals, sponges, and corallines, and affords some rare specimens of diminutive lobsters, crayfish, spider-crabs, &c. That part of the land which is properly cultivated, produces corn and potatoes of excellent quality, and more than the inhabitants (about 100) want. There is an abundance of wild rabbits; the sheep, though few, are fine; and the cormorant is often seen, in addition to the birds of the other islands.

JETHOU lies half a mile south-west of Herm, is half a mile long, and a quarter broad. It belongs to one proprietor, who constantly resides on it; and the only land

under cultivation is a rabbit-warren. Population 18.

The Channel Islands were known to the Romans, as their ancient names show. Christianity was introduced into the Roman isles by Sampson, archbishop of St. David's, subsequently bishop of Dol in Bretagne, and by St. Magloire, his successor in the latter see; in the diocese of which these islands were then comprehended. The religion of the islands previous to this period was Druidism. From the time of their amalgamation with the English territories they remained unmolested, till the reign of Edward I.; when they stoutly repelled an attack from the French. Jersey even fell into their hands for a period, during the rule of Edward III. In the civil wars of Charles I., they sided with the king, and were not reduced until after his death; from which time, until the French revolutionary war, their history is quiet enough. When protestantism was established in the islands soon after the Reformation, the Genevese forms were introduced; and presbyterianism remained the system until the restoration of Charles II., and the act of uniformity. Many were then induced to fall in with the Liturgic service; but so late as 1755, the dean was obliged to apply to the civil magistrates to enforce the reading of the litany; and even at the present time the surplice is not used; and, though baptism is generally administered in the church, yet there is not a font in the whole island.

It was in 1779 that the first attempt of modern France was made to deprive Great Britain of those last remnants of her continental possessions, the Channel Islands. A force of 6000 men was embarked in flat-bottomed boats, and endeavoured to land in the bay of St. Ouen on the first of May; but the invaders met with such a vigorous resistance from the militia of the island, assisted by a body of regulars,

that they were compelled to retire, without their boats having landed a single person. The squadron, moreover, which had been designed to cover their descent, was attacked by sir James Wallace, who drove them ashore on the coast of Normandy, silenced a battery under whose guns they had taken shelter, and captured a frigate of 34 guns. The attack on Jersey was resumed 1781, under baron de Rullecourt, who embarked with 2000 men in very tempestuous weather, hoping he might thus surprise the garrison. Many of his transports, however, got dispersed, and himself, with the remainder, were obliged to take shelter in some islands in the neighbourhood of Jersey. As soon as the winds had been allayed, he seized the opportunity of a dark night to effect a landing at Grouville, and made prisoners of a party of militia. Hence he proceeded with the utmost expedition to St. Helier, the capital; where he captured the party guarding it, together with the deputy-governor and magistrates of the island. Rullecourt then drew up a capitulation, the terms of which were, that the island should be instantly surrendered to the French, and the garrison sent to England; threatening the town with immediate destruction in case of non-compliance. It was in vain represented to him, that no act of the deputy-governor and magistrates could be valid while they remained in his power; but as the baron still insisted, they were obliged to comply, lest his menaces should have been carried into execution. This point gained, he advanced to Elizabeth castle, in the neighbourhood of the town, summoning it to surrender, in virtue of the capitulation for the town and island just concluded; but the only answer he received was a vigorous discharge of artillery, and he was obliged to retire into the town. By this time the British troops on the island had assembled under major Pierson;

who, on being required by the baron to submit, attacked his forces with such impetuosity, that they were totally routed in less than half an hour, and driven into the market-place, where they endeavoured to make a stand. The baron, exasperated at this unexpected turn of affairs, endeavoured to wreak his vengeance on the captive governor, whom he obliged to stand by his side during the whole time of the conflict; this, however, was quickly over; the French were broken on all sides, the baron himself was mortally wounded, and the whole party at last surrendered prisoners of war. This second disaster put an end to French hopes regarding the Channel Islands; but major Pierson, to whom their deliverance was owing, unhappily fell in the moment of victory, aged only 24.

THE NEW STYLE, 1752, was adopted in Great Britain.—The *old* style, or Julian (from its reformation by Cæsar), makes the Julian year 365 days six hours; the *new* or Gregorian (from pope Gregory XIII., 1582) corresponds with the true or solar year, which contains 365 days, five hours, and forty-nine minutes. In 1752, it was found that, by the gradual increment of the overplus minutes, eleven days must be struck out of the calendar, to render the date a correct notification of the earth's precise situation in her orbit. The third of September therefore, in that year, was reckoned as the fourteenth, so that there were no such days as from the third to the thirteenth inclusive of September, 1752; and to preserve the same order in future, every fourth year was to consist of 366 days, which giving only eleven minutes more in each year than the sun takes in returning to the same point in the zodiac, it will only require the omission of a day once in about 130 years, to correct the calendar perfectly again. The term *leap*, applied to the fourth year of 366 days, had thus its origin. In any two years, not bissextile, one succeed-

ing the other, the first of May, or other day, being on a Monday in the former of the two, would be on a Tuesday in the following one; whereas, if the bissextile or leap-year were the latter (the required day being after the month of February), it would fall on a Wednesday; thus, as it were, *leaping a day*.

'Thirty days hath September,
April, June, and November,—
February twenty-eight alone,
While all the rest have thirty-one;
But Leap-year, coming once in four,
Gives to February one day more.'

THE BRITISH MUSEUM, London, established, 1753.—The origin of this receptacle of valuable antiquities of our own and other nations, was the purchase of the library and curiosities of Sir Hans Sloane by the public, for the national benefit; the knight leaving his collection, which had cost him 50,000*l.*, to be purchased by parliament for 20,000*l.* of his executors. Old Montague-house, Bloomsbury, built by the first duke of Montague for his residence, is, with various additions and improvements, the building containing the royal Cottonian, Harleian, Sloanian, and other collections of books, including the splendid library of George IV., together with coins, subjects in natural history and the arts, precious stones, fossils, instruments of science, &c.; the relics of ancient Egypt, Greece, and Rome, and countless varieties connected with the forgotten times of our own and other countries. On certain days its valuable stores may be visited by all respectable persons, gratis.

THE ASYLUM FOR FEMALE ORPHANS founded 1758, at the suggestion of the novelist Fielding.—It is situated near Westminster-bridge, and has been, under the direction of judicious patrons, and especially by the long and parental watchfulness of its late excellent and talented chaplain and secretary, the rev. William Agutter, the means of conferring substantial blessings on society.

THE MAGDALEN CHARITY, London, founded by Mr. Robert Dingley, and a party of friends, at the sugges-

tion of the magistrate, Fielding, for the reception of penitent prostitutes.—Dr. Dodd, of unhappy memory, officiated as its first clergyman, and induced Charlotte, queen of George III., to become its patroness, when the new building was completed for the reception of its eighty penitents, in Blackfriars. The sad end of Dr. Dodd was nearly fatal to the interests of the charity; but, by the activity of certain stanch friends, and especially by the warm support of the Honourable Philip Pusey, and other members of the Radnor family, the affairs of the institution began at length to flourish, and have so continued to prosper to the present day. Conducted as they have been for the last fifty years, the consequences to society have been not simply beneficial, but glorious; and none are more fully entitled to the praises of their fellow-men, nor can have a surer hope of a reward above, than they who have studiously been engaged in the godlike task of reclaiming the most abandoned, of instructing the most ignorant, of healing the sorrows of betrayed and despairing woman, and of drawing the veil of charity and of silence over the treachery, the folly, and the depravity of man. It is a tribute due to the memory of its recently departed president and chaplain, sir James Allan Park, and the rev. John Prince, to state that much of the present success of this institution, under God, is attributable to them; hand in hand, and heart joined with heart, they spared neither time nor pains in so great a labour of love, during the better portion of half a century: they found friends and supporters for the institution, and kept them together: the one ready to act in all emergencies, and the other ever at his post, they went on in the blessed work of leading sinners to repentance,—and were assured of the sincerity of that repentance. They are now gone to receive their high reward; and each, in his last hour, felt the full comfort of the assurance, that 'he who has converted the sinner from the

error of her way, and has contributed to turn many to righteousness, shall shine as the stars for ever and ever.'

MELTON-MOWBRAY HUNT ESTABLISHED.—This was in 1759, by the gentry surrounding Melton-Mowbray, a good Leicestershire horse-market, having several fairs in the year for the sale of beasts. The hunt is now quite an exclusive affair; and its four chief members form a sort of authorized court in all matters connected with the chase in England. The packs of hounds attached to the hunt are three: viz., the Duke of Rutland's, Mr. Osbaldeston's or the Quorndon, and the earl of Lonsdale's or the Cottesmore—two out of the three meeting every day in the season, within reach of Melton. The season begins on the first Monday in November by the Quorndon meeting at Kirby-park, the residence of Sir Francis Burdett, and terminates about the second week in April with Croxton-park races. As historians, we leave the question of the morality of field-sports, to give a description of one, abbreviated from the narrative of a talented 'Quarterly Reviewer;' and we think our work would be incomplete, professing as it does to chronicle all customs, were it to omit one so intimately associated with the country life of the English nobility and gentry.

To describe a run with foxhounds is no easy task; but to make the attempt with any other county than Leicestershire, in our eye, would be giving a chance away. Let us then suppose ourselves at Ashby Pastures, in the Quorn country, with Mr. Osbaldeston's hounds. Let us also indulge ourselves with a fine morning in the first week of February; and at least two hundred well-mounted men by the cover's side. Time being called—say a quarter past eleven—nearly our great grandfather's dinner-hour—the hounds approach the furze-brake, or the gorse, as it is called in the region. 'Hark in, hark!' with a slight cheer, and perhaps one wave of his cap, says Mr. Osbaldeston, who has long hunted his own pack; and

in an instant he has got a hound at his horse's heels. In a very short time the gorse appears shaken in various parts of the cover; apparently from an unknown cause—not a single hound being for some minutes visible. Presently, one or two appear, leaping over some old furze which they cannot push through, and exhibit to the field their glossy skins, and spotted sides. 'Oh you beauties!' exclaims some old Meltonian rapturously fond of the sport. Two minutes more elapse; another hound slips out of cover, and takes a short turn outside, with his nose to the ground, and his stern lashing his side—thinking, no doubt, he might touch on a drag, should Reynard have been abroad in the night. 'Hounds have no business to think,' thinks the second whipper-in, who observes him; but on a crack of his whip, with 'Rasselas, Rasselas, where are you going? Rasselas get to cover, Rasselas!' Rasselas immediately disappears. Five minutes more pass away. 'No fox here,' says one. 'Don't be in a hurry,' cries Mr. Craddock, 'they are drawing it beautifully, and there is rare lying in it.' These words are scarcely uttered, when the cover shakes more than ever. Every stem appears alive; and it reminds us of a cornfield waving in the wind. In two minutes the stems of some hounds are seen flourishing above the gorse. 'Have at him there!' hallooes the squire, the gorse still more alive, and hounds leaping over each others' backs. 'Have at him there again, my good hounds—a fox for a hundred!' reiterates the squire, putting his finger in his ear, and uttering a scream which, not being set to music, we cannot give here. Jack Stevens, the first whipper-in, looks at his watch at this moment. John White, Val Maher, Frank Holyoake (who will pardon us for giving them their *noms-de-chasse*), and two or three more of the fast ones, are seen creeping gently on towards a point, at which they think it probable he may break. 'Hold hard there,' says a sportsman; but he might as well speak to the

winds. 'Stand still, gentlemen, *pray* stand still!' exclaims the huntsman—he might as well say so to the sun. During the time we have been speaking of, all the field have been awake—gloves put on—cigars thrown away—the bridle-reins gathered well up into the hands—and hats pushed down upon the brow.

At this interesting period, a Snob (*i. e.* one ignorant of the plan of hunt), just arrived from a very rural country, and unknown to any one, but determined to witness the start, got into a conspicuous situation. 'Come away, sir!' halloes the master (little suspecting that the Snob may be nothing less than one of the Quarterly Reviewers), 'What mischief are you doing there? Do you think *you* can catch the fox?' A breathless silence ensues. At length a whimper is heard in the cover—like the voice of a dog in a dream. It is Flourisher; and the squire cheers him to the echo. In an instant a hound challenges—and another—and another. 'Tis enough. 'Tallyho!' cries a countryman in a tree. 'He's gone,' exclaims lord Alvanley; and, clapping spurs to his horse, in an instant is in the front rank.

As all good sportsmen would say—'Ware hounds!' cries Sir Harry Goodricke. 'Give them time,' exclaims Mr. John Moore. 'That's right,' says Mr. Osbaldeston, 'spoil your own sport, as usual.' 'Go along,' roars out Mr. Holyoake, 'there are three couple of hounds on the scent.' 'That's your sort,' says Billy Coke, coming up at the rate of thirty miles an hour on Advance, with a label pinned on his back, having this inscription:—'She kicks; the rest are all coming, and there's a rare scent to-day, I'm sure.' Bonaparte's Old Guard, in its best days, would not have stopped such men as these, as long as life remained in them.

Only those who have witnessed it can know in what an extraordinary manner hounds, that are left behind in a cover, make their way through a crowd, and get up to the leading

ones of the pack, which have been fortunate in getting away with their fox. It is true they possess the speed of a race-horse; but nothing short of their high mettle could induce them to thread their way through a body of horsemen going the best pace, with the prospect of being ridden over and maimed at every stride they take. But, as Beckford observes, 'tis the *dash* of the foxhound which distinguishes him. A turn, however, in their favour, or a momentary loss of scent in the few hounds that have shot ahead—an occurrence to be looked for on such occasions—joins head and tail (*i. e.* the two parties of dogs) together, and the scent being good, every hound settles to his fox. The pace gradually improves; *vires acquirit eundo*: a terrible burst is the result.

At the end of nineteen minutes, the hounds come to a fault; and for a moment the fox has a chance. In fact, they have been pressed upon by the horses, and have rather over-run the scent. 'What a pity!' says one. 'What a shame!' cries another—aluding perhaps to a young one, who would and could have gone still faster. 'You may thank yourselves for this!' exclaims Osbaldeston, well up at the time—Clasher looking fresh; but only fourteen men of the two hundred are to be counted—all the rest coming. At one blast of the horn, the hounds are back to the point at which the scent has failed, Jack Stevens being in his place to turn them. 'Yodoit! Pastime,' says the squire, as she feathers her stern down the hedgerow, looking more beautiful than ever. 'She speaks! worth a thousand!' cries John White, looking over his left shoulder, as he sends both spurs into Euston, delighted to see only four more of the field are up. Our Snob, however, is amongst them. He has gone a good one; and his countenance is expressive of delight as he urges his horse to his speed, to get again into a front place.

The pencil of the painter is now

wanting; and, unless the painter should be a sportsman, even *his* pencil would be worth little. What a country is before him! What a panorama does it represent! Not a field of less than forty, some an hundred acres—and no more signs of the plough than in the wilds of Siberia. See the hounds, in a body that might be covered by a damask table-cloth—every stern down, and every head up—for there is no need of stooping, the scent lying breast-high. But the *crash*—the *music*—how to describe these, reader? There is no crash now, and not much music. It is the tinker, that makes great noise over little work: but at the pace these hounds are going, there is no time for babbling. Perchance one hound in ten may throw his tongue as he goes, to inform his comrades, as it were, that the villain is on before them; and most musically do the light notes of vocal and far-famed Venus fall on the ear of those who may be within reach to catch them.

But who is so fortunate in this second burst, nearly as terrible as the first? Our fancy supplies us again, and we think we could name them all. If we look to the left, nearly abreast of the pack, we see six men, going gallantly, and quite as straight as the hounds themselves are going; and on the right are four more, riding equally well, though the former have rather the best of it, owing to having had the inside of the hounds at the last two turns, which must be placed to the chapter of accidents. A short way in the rear, by no means too much so to enjoy this brilliant run, are the rest of the *élite* of the field, who had come up at the first check; and a few who, thanks to the goodness of their steeds, and their determination to be with the hounds, appeared as if dropped from the clouds. Some, however, begin to show symptoms of distress. Two horses are seen loose in the distance—a report is flying about that one of the field is badly hurt—and something is heard of

a collar-bone being broken—others say it is a leg; but the pace is too good to inquire. A cracking of rails is now heard, and one gentleman's horse is to be seen resting, nearly balanced, across one of them, his rider lying along on his back in the ditch which is on the landing side. 'Who is he?' says Lord Brudenell to Jack Stevens. 'Can't tell, my lord, but I thought it was a queerish place when I came o'er it before him.' It is evidently a case of peril—but the pace is too good to afford help.

Up to this time, Snob has gone quite in the first flight; the dons begin to eye him; and when an opportunity offers, the question is asked, 'Who is that fellow on the little bay horse?' 'Don't know him,' says Mr. Little Gilmour (a 14 stone Scotsman, by the by), ganging gallantly to his hounds. 'He can ride,' exclaims Lord Ranccliffe. 'A tip-top provincial depend upon it,' adds Lord Plymouth, going quite at his ease, on a thorough-bred nag, three stone above his weight, and in perfect racing trim. 'Animal nature,' however, will cry 'enough,' how good soever she may be, if unreasonable man press her beyond the point. The line of scent lies right athwart a large grass-ground (as a field is termed in Leicestershire), somewhat on the ascent, abounding in anthills, or hillocks peculiar to all grazing land, and thrown up by the plough, some 100 years since, into rather high ridges, with deep holding furrows between each. The fence at the top is impracticable—Meltonicè 'a stopper'—nothing for it but a gate, leading into a broad green lane, high and strong, with deep slippery ground on each side of it. 'Now for the timber-jumper,' cries Osbaldeston, pleased to find himself upon Clasher; 'but take care of my hounds, in case they may throw up in the lane.' Snob is here in the best of company, and that moment perhaps the happiest of his life; but not satisfied with his situation, wishing to out-herod Herod, and to have a fine

story to tell when he gets home, he pushes to his speed on ground on which all regular Leicestershire men are careful, and the death-warrant of the little bay horse is signed. It is true he gets first to the gate, and has no idea of opening it; sees it contains five new and strong bars, that will neither bend nor break; has a great idea of a fall, but no idea of refusing; presses his hat firmly on his head, and gets his whip-hand at liberty to give the good little nag a refresher; but all at once he perceives it will not do. When attempting to collect him for the effort, he finds his mouth dead, and his neck stiff; fancies he hears something like a wheezing in his throat; and discovering quite unexpectedly that the gate would open, wisely avoids a fall, which was *booked* had he attempted to leap it. He pulls up then at the gate; and as he places the hook of his whip under the latch, John White goes over it close to the hinge-post, and captain Ross, upon Clinker, follows him. The Reviewer then walks through.

The scene now shifts. On the other side of the lane is a fence of this description; it is a newly-plashed hedge, abounding in strong growers, as they are called, and a yawning ditch on the further side; but, as is peculiar to Leicestershire and Northamptonshire, a large portion of the blackthorn, left uncut, leans outwards from the hedge, somewhat about breast-high. This large fence is taken by all now with the hounds—some to the right, and some to the left of the direct line; but the little bay horse would have no more of it. Snob puts him twice at it, and manfully too; but the wind is out of him, and he has no power to rise. Several scrambles, but only one fall occurs at this 'rasper,' all having had nearly enough of the pace; and a mile and a half farther, the second horses are fallen in with, just in the nick of time. A short check from the stain of sheep makes every thing comfortable; and the squire having hit off his fox like a workman, thirteen

men out of two hundred are fresh mounted and with the hounds, which settle to the scent again at a truly killing pace.

'Hold hard, Holyoake!' exclaims Mr. Osbaldeston (now mounted on Blucher), knowing what double-quick time he would be marching to, with fresh pipes to play upon, and the crowd well shaken off; '*pray* don't press 'em too hard, and we shall be *sure* to kill our fox. Have at him there, Abigail and Fickle, good dogs—see what a head they are carrying! I'll bet a thousand they kill him.' The country appears better and better. 'He is taking a capital line,' exclaims sir Harry Goodricke, as he points out to sir James Musgrave two young furrier hounds, who are particularly distinguishing themselves at the moment. 'Worth a dozen Reform-bills,' shouted sir F. Burdett, sitting erect upon Samson, and putting his head straight at 'a yawner.' 'We shall have the Whissendine brook,' cries Mr. Maher, who knows every field in the country, 'for he is making straight for Teigh.' 'And a bumper too, after last night's rain,' halloes captain Berkeley, determined to get first to four stiff rails in a corner. 'So much the better,' says lord Alvanley, 'I like a bumper at all times!' 'A fig for the Whissendine,' cries lord Gardner, 'I am on the best water-jumper in my stable.'

The prophecy turns up. Having skirted Ranksborough gorse, the villain has now nowhere to stop short of Woodwell-head cover, which he is pointing for; and in ten minutes or less the brook appears in view. It is even with its banks, and

'Smooth glides the water, where the brook is deep.'

'Yooi, over he goes!' halloes the squire, as he perceives it, and Jewel plunging into the stream, and Red-rose shaking herself on the opposite bank. Seven men out of thirteen take it in their stride; three stop short, their horses refusing the first time, but come well over the second; and three find themselves in the

middle of it. The gallant 'Frank Forrester' is among the latter; and having been requested that morning to wear a friend's new red coat, to take off the gloss and glare of the shop, he accomplishes the task to perfection in the bluish-black mud of the Whissendine, only then subsiding after a three days' flood. 'Who is that under his horse in the brook?' inquires that good sportsman and fine rider, Mr. Green of Rolleston, whose noted old mare had just skimmed over the water, like a swallow on a summer's evening. 'Only Dick Christian,' answers lord Forrester, 'and it is nothing new to him.' 'But he'll be drowned!' exclaims Lord Kinnaird. 'I shouldn't wonder,' observes Mr. William Coke; 'but the pace is too good to inquire.'

The fox does his best to escape; he threads hedgerows, tries the out-buildings of a farmhouse, and once turns so short, as nearly to run his foil; but—the perfection of the thing—the hounds turn shorter than he—much as to say—die you shall. The pace has been awful for the last twenty minutes. Three horses are blown to a stand-still, and few are going at their ease. 'Out upon this great carcass of mine: no horse can live under it at this pace and over this country!' says one of the best of the hunt, as he stands over his four-hundred-guinea chestnut, then rising from the ground, after giving him a heavy fall. 'Not hurt, I hope,' exclaims Mr. Maxse to somebody, whom he gets a glimpse of through the openings of a tall quickset hedge which is between them, coming neck and croup into the adjoining field from the top bar of a high hog-backed stile. His eye might have been spared the unpleasing sight, had not his ear been attracted to a sort of *procumbit-humi-bos* sound of a horse falling to the ground on his back, the bone of his left hip indenting the green sward within two inches of his rider's thigh. It is young Peyton (the only son of sir Henry, one of the best and hardest riders of the present

day), who, having missed his second horse at the check, had been going nearly half the way in distress; but from nerve and pluck, perhaps peculiar to Englishmen, but very peculiar to himself, had got within three fields of the end of this brilliant run. The fall was all but a certainty; for it was the third stiff timber-fence that had unfortunately opposed him, after his horse's wind had been pumped out by the pace. But he was too good to refuse them; and his horse knew better than to do so.

The *Æneid* of Virgil ends with a death; and a chase is not complete without one. The fox dies within half a mile of Woolwell-head, evidently his point from the first; the pack pulling him down in the middle of a large grass-field, every hound but one at his brush. Jack Stevens, with him in his hands, would be a subject worthy of Edwin Landseer himself: a blackthorn, which had laid hold of his cheek, has besmeared his upper garments with blood; and one side of his head and cap is cased in mud, by a fall he has had in a lane, his horse having alighted in the ruts from a high flight of rails; but he has ridden the same horse throughout the run, and has handled him so well, he could have gone two miles farther, if the chase had been continued so long. Osbaldeston's *who-hoop* might have been heard to Cottesmore, had the wind set in that direction; and every man present is ecstatic with delight. 'Quite the cream of the thing, I suppose,' says lord Gardner, a very promising young one, at this time fresh in Leicestershire. 'The cream of every thing in the shape of fox-hunting,' observes that excellent sportsman, sir James Musgrave, looking at his watch. 'Just ten miles, as the crow flies, in one hour and ten minutes—with but two trifling checks—over the finest country in the world. What superb hounds are these!' added the baronet, as he turned his horse to the wind. 'You are right,' says colonel Lowther, 'they are perfect. I wish my father had seen them

do their work to day.' Some of the field now come up, who could not live in the first flight; but as there is no jealousy here, they congratulate each other on the fine day's sport, and each man turns his head towards home.

A large party dine this evening at the Old Club, where of course this fine run is discussed, and the following accurate description is given of it by one of the oldest members, a true friend to fox-hunting, and to all mankind as well. 'We found him,' says he, 'at Ashby Pasture, and got away with him, up wind, at a slapping pace, over Burrow Hill, leaving Thorpe Trussells to the right, when a trifling check occurred. He then pointed for Ranksborough gorse, which some feared and others hoped he might hang in a little; but he was too good to go near it. Leaving that on his right also, he crossed the brook to Whissendine, going within half a mile of the village; and then he had nothing for it but to fly. That magnificent country in the direction of Teigh was open to him, and he showed that he had the courage to face it. Leaving Teigh on the right, Woolwell-head was his point; and in two more fields he would have reached it. Thus we found him in the Quorn country; ran him over the finest part of lord Lonsdale's; and killed him on the borders of the Belvoir. Sir Bellingham Graham's hounds once gave us just such another tickler—from the same place and in the same time—when the field were nearly as much beaten as they were to-day.'

But we have left Snob in the lane; who, after casting a longing eye towards his more fortunate companions, that were still keeping well in with the hounds, throws the rein over the neck of the good little bay horse, and, walking by his side, that he may recover his wind, inquires his way to Melton. Having no one to converse with, he thus soliloquizes as he goes: 'What a dolt have I been to spend five hundred a year on my stable in any country but this! But stop a

little: how is it that I, weighing but eleven stone four pounds with my saddle, and on my best horse, an acknowledged good one in my own country, could neither go so long nor so fast as that heavy fellow, Maxse; that still heavier lord Alvanley; and that monster, Tom Edge, who, they tell me, weighs eighteen stone at least in the scales?' At this moment a bridle-gate opens into the lane, and a gentleman in scarlet appears, with his countenance pale and wan, and expressive of severe pain. It is he who had been dug out of the ditch, in which Jack Stevens had left him; his horse having fallen upon him after being suspended on the rail, and broken three of his ribs. Feeling extremely unwell, he is glad to meet with Snob, who is going his road—to Melton—and who offers him all the assistance in his power. Snob also repeats to him his soliloquy—at least the sum and substance of it; on which the gentleman, recovering a little from his faintness (by the help of a glass of brandy-and-water at the village), thus makes his comment: 'I think, sir, you are a stranger in this part of the world?' 'Certainly,' replied Snob, 'it is my first appearance in Leicestershire.' 'I observed you in the run,' continued the wounded sportsman, 'and very well you went, up to the time I fell; but particularly so to your first check. You then rode to a leader, and made an excellent choice; but, after that period, I saw you taking a line of your own, and anticipated the fate you have met with. If you remain with us long, you will be sure to find out, that riding to hounds in Leicestershire is different from what it is in most other counties of England, and requires a little apprenticeship. There is much choice of ground; and if this choice be not judiciously made, and coupled with a cautious observance of pace, a horse is beaten in a very short time. If you doubt my creed, look to the events of this memorable day.' Snob thanks him

for his hints, and notes them in his book of memory.

The fame of Snob and his little bay horse reaches Melton before he walks in himself. 'That provincial fellow did not go amiss to-day,' says one. 'Who was that rural-looking man, on a neatish bay horse—all but his tail—who was so well with us at the first check?' asks another, who himself could not get to the end, although he went 'a good one' three parts of the way. There is no one present to answer these questions; but the next day, and the next, Snob is in the field again—and again in a good place. Further inquiries are made, and satisfactory information obtained. On the fourth day, a nod from one, a 'how d'ye do?' from another, 'a fine morning' from a third, are tokens goodhumouredly bestowed upon him by some of the leading men; and on the fifth day, after a capital half-hour, in which he had again distinguished himself, a noble *bon-vivant* thus addresses him: 'Perhaps, sir, you would like to dine with me to-day? I shall be happy to see you at seven.'

'Covers,' he writes next day to some friend in his remote western province, 'were laid for eight—the favourite number of our late king (George IV.); and perhaps his majesty never sat down to a better dressed dinner in his life. To my surprise, the subject of fox-hunting was named but once during the evening; and that was when an order was given that a servant might be sent to inquire after a gentleman who had had a bad fall that morning over some timber; and to ask, by the way, if Dick Christian came alive out of a ditch, in which he had been left, with a clever young thorough-bred on the top of him.' The writer proceeds to describe an evening, in which wit and music were more thought of than wine—and presenting, in all respects, a perfect contrast to the old notions of a fox-hunting society.

It is this union of the elegant repose of life with the energetic sports of the field, that constitutes the charm of Melton-Mowbray.

THE COCK-LANE GHOST.—That so absurd a matter should occupy as it did the minds of thousands of the educated portion of a city, the greatest, and for aught we know, the most intellectual in the world, is indeed a subject of contemplation for the metaphysician and moralist, as it would have been rich food for a Democritus. It was an imposture connected with what is technically termed 'a haunted house' in London, wherein a girl is supposed to have been the chief agent. Dr. Johnson was one of the principal discoverers of the cheat, much as it was beneath the dignity of the great moral philosopher so to interest himself in the silly affair; respecting which Mrs. Montague, the clever discussor of the merits of Shakspeare, thus writes to Mrs. Robinson: 'As I suppose you read the newspapers, you will see mention of the ghost; but without you were on the spot, you could never conceive that the most bungling performance of the silliest imposture could take up the attention and conversation of all the fine world. And as the ways of the *beau monde* are always in contradiction to the gospel, they are determined to show that though they do not believe in Moses and the prophets, they *would* believe if one were to come from the dead, though it were only to play tricks like a rat behind a wainscot!' The facts are as follows: At the commencement of 1760 there resided in Cock lane, near West Smithfield, in the house of one Parsons, the parish-clerk of St. Sepulchre's, a stock-broker named Kent. The wife of this gentleman had died during the previous year; and his sister-in-law, Miss Fanny, had arrived from Norfolk, to keep his house for him. They soon conceived a mutual affection, and each of them made

a will in the other's favour. They lived some months in the house of Parsons, who, being a needy man, borrowed money of his lodger. Some differences arose betwixt them; and Mr. Kent left the house, and instituted legal proceedings against the parish-clerk for the recovery of his money. While this matter was yet pending, Miss Fanny was suddenly taken ill of the smallpox; and notwithstanding every care and attention, she died in a few days, and was buried in a vault under Clerkenwell church. Parsons now began to hint that the poor lady had come unfairly by her death, and that Mr. Kent was accessory to it, from his too great eagerness to enter into possession of the property she had bequeathed to him. Nothing further was said for nearly two years; but it would appear that Parsons was of so revengeful a character, that he had never forgotten or forgiven his differences with Mr. Kent, and the indignity of having been sued for the borrowed money. The strong passions of pride and avarice were silently at work during all that interval, hatching schemes of revenge, but dismissing them one after another as impracticable, until, at last, a notable one suggested itself. About 1762, the alarm was spread over all the neighbourhood of Cock lane, that the house of Parsons was haunted by the ghost of poor Fanny, and that the daughter of Parsons, a girl about twelve years of age, had several times seen and conversed with the spirit, who had moreover informed her, that she had not died of the smallpox as was currently reported, but of poison administered by Mr. Kent. Parsons, who originated, took good care to countenance, these reports; and, in answer to numerous inquiries, said his house was every night, and had been for two years, in fact ever since the death of Fanny, troubled with a loud knocking at the doors and in the walls. Having thus prepared

the ignorant and credulous neighbours to believe or exaggerate for themselves what he had told them, he sent for a gentleman in a higher class of life, to come and witness these extraordinary occurrences. The gentleman came accordingly, and found the daughter of Parsons—to whom an alleged spirit alone appeared, and to whom alone it answered—in bed, trembling violently, having just seen the ghost, and having been again informed that she had died from poison. A loud knocking was also heard from every part of the chamber; which so mystified the understanding of the visitor, that he departed, afraid to doubt, and ashamed to believe, but with a promise to bring the clergyman of the parish, and several other gentlemen, on the following day. On the following night he returned, bringing with him three clergymen, and about twenty other persons, including two negroes; when, upon a consultation with Parsons, they resolved to sit up the whole night, and await the ghost's arrival. It was then explained by Parsons, that, although the ghost would never render itself visible to any one but his daughter, it had no objection to answer questions that might be put to it by any person present—that it expressed an affirmation by one knock, a negative by two, and its displeasure by scratching. The child was then put into bed, together with her sister; and the clergymen examined the bedclothes, to satisfy themselves that no trick was played. As on the previous night, the bed was observed to shake violently. After some hours, during which they all waited with exemplary patience, the mysterious knocking was heard in the wall, and the child declared that she saw the ghost of poor Fanny. The following questions were then gravely put by one of the clergymen (the answers were by a knock or knocks): Do you make this disturbance on account of the ill-usage

you received from Mr. Kent?—Yes.

—Were you brought to an untimely death by poison?—Yes.—How was the poison administered?—In purl.—How long was that before your death?—About three hours.—Can your former servant, Carrots, give any information about the poison?—

Yes.—Are you Kent's wife's sister?

—Yes.—Were you married to Kent after your sister's death?—No.—

Was any body else besides Kent concerned in your murder?—No.—

Can you, if you like, appear visibly to any one?—Yes.—Will you do so?

—Yes.—Can you go out of this house?—Yes.—Is it your intention to follow this child about everywhere?

—Yes.—Are you pleased in being asked these questions?—Yes.—Does it ease your troubled soul?—Yes.—

(Here there was heard a mysterious noise, which some wisacre present compared to the fluttering of wings.)

How long before your death did you tell your servant, Carrots, that you were poisoned? An hour?—Yes.—

(Carrots, who was present, was here appealed to; but she stated positively that such was not the fact, as the deceased was quite speechless an hour before her death. This shocked the faith of some of the spectators; but the examination was allowed to continue.)

How long did Carrots live with you?—Three or four days. (Carrots was again appealed to, and said that this was true.)

If Mr. Kent is arrested for this murder, will he confess?—Yes.—Would your soul be at rest if he were hanged for it?—

Yes.—Will he be hanged for it?—Yes.—How long a time first?—

Three years.—How many clergymen are there in this room?—Three.—

How many negroes?—Two.—Is this watch (held up by one of the clergymen) white?—No.—Is it yellow?

—No.—Is it blue?—No.—Is it black?—Yes. (The watch was in a black shagreen case.)

At what time this morning will you take your departure? The answer to this question was four knocks, very distinctly heard by every person present; and

accordingly, at four o'clock precisely the ghost took its departure to the Wheatsheaf public-house, close by, where it frightened mine host and his wife almost out of their wits, by knocking in the ceiling right above their bed. The rumour of these occurrences very soon spread over London; and every day Cock-lane was rendered impassable by the crowds of people who assembled around the house of the parish-clerk, in expectation of either seeing the ghost, or of hearing the mysterious knocks. It was at last found necessary, so clamorous were they for admission within the haunted precincts, to admit those only who would pay a certain fee; an arrangement which was very convenient to the needy and money-loving Mr. Parsons. Indeed, things had taken a turn greatly to his satisfaction; he not only had his revenge, but he made a profit out of it. The ghost in consequence played its antics every night, to the great amusement of many hundreds of people, and the great perplexity of a still greater number. Unhappily, however, for the parish-clerk, the ghost was induced to make some promises which were the means of utterly destroying its reputation. It promised, in answer to the questions of Mr. Aldrich of Clerkenwell, that it would attend him, or any other gentleman, into the vault of St. John's church, where the body of the murdered woman had been deposited, and would there give notice of its presence by a distinct knock upon the coffin. As a preliminary, the girl was conveyed to the house of Mr. Aldrich (the incumbent), near the church, where a large party of ladies and gentlemen had assembled in the evening of the 1st of February; and the girl having been put to bed, the whole party was summoned into the bedroom by one or two ladies, who had remained to witness the unrobing, and who affirmed, in great alarm, that the ghost was come, for they heard the knocks and scratches. The gentlemen and remaining ladies entered

accordingly; and the little girl, on being asked whether she had seen the ghost, replied, 'No; but she felt it on her back like a mouse.' She was then required to put her hands out of bed; and they being held by some of the ladies, the spirit was summoned in the usual manner, to answer if it were in the room. The question was several times put with great solemnity; but the customary knock was not heard in reply in the wall, neither was there any scratching. The ghost was then asked to render itself visible; but it did not choose to grant the request. It was next solicited to give some token of its presence, by a sound of any sort, or by touching the hand or cheek of any lady or gentleman in the room; but even with this request the ghost would not comply. There was now a considerable pause, and one of the clergymen went down stairs to interrogate the father of the girl, who was waiting the result of the experiment. He positively denied that there was any deception, and even went so far as to say that he himself, upon one occasion, had seen and conversed with the spirit. This having been communicated to the company, it was unanimously resolved to give the ghost another trial; and a clergyman called out in a loud voice, 'that he, to whom it had promised to appear in the vault, was about to repair thither, and claimed the fulfilment of its promise.' At one hour after midnight, they all proceeded to the church; and the gentleman in question, with another, entered the vault alone, and took their post by the side of the coffin of poor Fanny. The ghost was then summoned to knock, but it knocked not; it was solicited to scratch, but it scratched not; and the two retired from the vault, with the firm belief that the whole business was a deception practised by Parsons and his daughter. There were others, however, who did not wish to jump so hastily to a conclusion; and who suggested that they were, perhaps, trifling with the awful and supernatural

being, who, offended at their presumption, would not condescend to answer them. Again, after a serious consultation, it was agreed on all hands, that, if the ghost answered any body at all, it would answer Mr. Kent, the supposed murderer; and he was accordingly requested to repair to the vault. He went with several others, and summoned the ghost to answer, whether he had indeed murdered her? There being no answer, the question was put by Mr. Aldrich; who conjured it, if it were indeed a spirit, to end their doubts—make a sign of its presence—and point out the guilty person. There being still no answer for the space of half an hour, during which all these boobies waited with praiseworthy perseverance, they returned to the house of Mr. Aldrich, and ordered the girl to get up, and dress herself. She was strictly examined; but persisted in her statement that she used no deception, and that the ghost had really appeared to her. So many persons had, however, by their openly-expressed belief of the reality of the visitation, identified themselves with it, that Parsons and his family were far from being the only persons interested in the continuance of the delusion. These were not to be convinced by any evidence, however positive; and they therefore spread about the rumour, that the ghost had not appeared in the vault, because Mr. Kent had taken care beforehand to have the coffin removed. That person, whose position was a very painful one, immediately procured competent witnesses, in whose presence the vault was entered, and the coffin of poor Fanny opened. Their deposition was then published; and Mr. Kent indicted Parsons, his wife, his daughter, Mary Frazer, the servant, the rev. Mr. Moore, and a tradesman, for a conspiracy. The trial came on before lord chief-justice Mansfield, and the whole of the conspirators were found guilty. Mr. Moore and

his friend were severely reprimanded. Parsons was sentenced to stand three times in the pillory, and to be imprisoned for two years; his wife to one year's, and his servant to six months' imprisonment in the Bridewell; a printer who had been employed by them to publish an account of the proceedings for their profit, was fined fifty pounds. The precise manner in which the deception was carried on has never been explained; but the knocking in the walls was most probably the work of Parsons's wife, while the scratching part was left to the girl.

Mrs. Montague's sarcasm will be admitted just, when we have read Horace Walpole's statement. 'We set out from the opera, changed our clothes at Northumberland house;—the duke of York, lady Northumberland, lady Mary Coke, lord Hertford, and I, all in one hackney-coach, and drove to the spot. It rained in torrents; yet the lane was full of mob, and the house so full that we could not get in. At last they discovered it was the duke of York; and the company squeezed themselves into one another's pockets to make room for us. When we entered the chamber, in which were fifty people, with no light but one tallow candle at the end, we tumbled over the bed of the child to whom the ghost comes. At the top of the room are ropes to dry clothes. I asked if we were to have rope-dancing between the acts? We had nothing. They told us, as they would at a puppet-show,—'that it would not come that night till *seven in the morning*,—that is, when there are only 'prentices and old women. We staid, however, until half an hour past one.' We have only to think of a royal prince, two noble ladies, a peer, and the son of a prime minister, huddling together in a dirty hackney-coach, during a winter's night, and then sitting two or three hours in a close and filthy apartment, lit by a single tallow-candle, and, in the presence of fifty of the common people,

waiting for the appearance of a ghost!

THE BATTLE OF DETTINGEN, 1743.

—The troops which king George II. had assembled in the Netherlands, began their march for the Rhine in the latter end of February; and in May they encamped near Hoech on the river Maine, under the command of the earl of Stair. Louis XV., in order to prevent the junction of the British forces with prince Charles of Lorraine, ordered the marshal de Noailles to assemble 60,000 men upon the Maine; while Coigny was sent into Alsace with a numerous army, to defend that province, and oppose prince Charles, should he attempt to pass the Rhine. The marshal de Noailles, having secured the towns of Spire, Worms, and Oppenheim, passed the Rhine in the beginning of June, and posted himself on the east side of that river, above Frankfort. The earl of Stair advanced towards him, and encamped at Killenbach, between the river Maine and the forest of d'Armstadt: from this situation he made a motion to Aschaffenburg, with a view to secure the navigation of the Upper Maine; but he was anticipated by the enemy, who lay on the other side of the river, and had taken possession of the posts above, so as to intercept all supplies. They had encamped on ground exactly opposite to the allies, whose camp they overlooked: and they found means, by their parties and other precautions, to cut off the communication by water between Frankfort and the confederates. The duke of Cumberland had already come to make his first campaign, and his majesty arrived in the camp on the 9th day of June. He found his army, amounting to about 40,000 men, in danger of starving; he received intelligence, that a reinforcement of 12,000 Hanoverians and Hessians had reached Hanau; and he resolved to march thither, both with a view to effect the junction, and to procure provision for his forces. With this object, he decamped on the 26th of

June. He had no sooner quitted Aschaffenburg than it was seized by the French general; and he had not marched above three leagues, when he perceived the enemy, to the number of 30,000, had passed the river farther down, at Selingenstadt, and were drawn up in order of battle at the village of Dettingen, to dispute his passage. Thus he found himself cooped up in a very dangerous situation. The enemy had possessed themselves of Aschaffenburg behind, so as to prevent his retreat; his troops were confined in a narrow plain, bounded by hills and woods on the right, flanked on the left by the river Maine, on the opposite side of which the French had erected batteries that annoyed the allies on their march; in the front a considerable part of the French army was drawn up, with a narrow pass before them, the village of Dettingen on their right, a wood on their left, and a morass in the centre. Thus environed, the confederates must either have fought at a very great disadvantage, or surrendered themselves prisoners of war, had not the duke de Grammont, who commanded the enemy, been instigated by the spirit of madness to forego these advantages. He passed the defile, and advancing towards the allies, a battle ensued. The French horse charged with great impetuosity, and some regiments of British cavalry were put in disorder; but the infantry of the allies behaved with such intrepidity and deliberation, under the eye of their sovereign, as soon determined the fate of the day. The French were obliged to give way, and repass the Maine with great precipitation, having lost about 5000 men killed, wounded, or taken. The loss of the allies in the action amounted to 2000. The generals Clayton and Monroy were killed; the duke of Cumberland, who exhibited uncommon proofs of courage, was shot through the calf of the leg; the earl of Albemarle, general Huske, and several other officers of distinction, were wounded. The king exposed

his person to a severe fire of cannon as well as musketry: he rode between the first and second lines with his sword drawn, and encouraged the troops to fight for the honour of England; and immediately after the action, he continued his march to Hannau, where he was joined by the expected reinforcement.

EARTHQUAKE SHOCK IN LONDON, 1750.—On February 8th, between twelve and one in the afternoon, the people of London were dreadfully alarmed by the shock of an earthquake; which shook all the houses with such violence, that the furniture rocked on the floors, the pewter and porcelain rattled on the shelves, the chamber-bells rang; and the whole of the commotion was attended with a clap or noise resembling that produced by the fall of some heavy piece of furniture. The trembling extended through the cities of London and Westminster, and was felt on both sides of the river Thames, from Greenwich to the westward of London; but it was not perceptible at any considerable distance. On the same day of the next month, between five and six o'clock in the morning, the inhabitants of the metropolis were affrighted by a second shock, more violent than the first, and abundantly more alarming, as it waked the greater part of the people from their repose. It was preceded by a succession of thick low flashes of lightning, and a rumbling noise, like that of a heavy carriage rolling over a hollow pavement. The shock itself consisted of repeated vibrations, which lasted some seconds, and violently shook each house from top to bottom. Again the chairs rocked, the shelves clattered, the small bells rang, and in some places public clocks were heard to strike. Many persons, roused by the visitation, started naked from their beds, and ran to their doors and windows in distraction; yet no life was lost, and no house overthrown by the concussion, though it seemed to threaten an immediate dissolution of the globe. The circumstance did not fail to

make a deep impression upon ignorant, weak, and superstitious minds, which were the more affected by the consideration that the two shocks were periodical; that the second, which happened exactly one month after the first, had been the more violent; and that the next, increasing in proportion, might be attended with the most dismal consequences. This general notion was confirmed, and indeed propagated, among all ranks of people, by the admonitions of a fanatic soldier, who publicly preached up repentance on Kennington-common, and boldly prophesied that the next shock would happen on the same day of April, and totally destroy the cities of London and Westminster. Considering the infectious nature of fear and superstition, and the emphatic manner in which the imagination had been prepared and prepossessed, it is not very wonderful that the prediction of this illiterate enthusiast should have contributed to augment the general terror. The churches were crowded with penitent sinners; the sons of riot and profligacy were overawed into sobriety and decorum! The streets no longer resounded with execrations, or the noise of brutal licentiousness; and the hand of charity was liberally opened. Those whom fortune had enabled to retire from the devoted city, fled to the country with hurry and precipitation; insomuch that the highways were encumbered with horses and carriages. Many who had, in the beginning, combated these groundless fears with the weapons of reason and ridicule, began insensibly to imbibe the contagion, and felt their hearts fail, in proportion as the hour of probation approached: even science and philosophy were not proof against the unaccountable effects of this communication. Accordingly, on the evening of April 8th, the open fields that skirt the metropolis were filled with an incredible number of people, assembled in chairs, in chaises, in coaches, as well as on foot; who waited in the most fearful suspense,

until morning and the return of day disproved the truth of the dreaded prophecy. Then their fears vanished! They returned to their respective habitations in a transport of joy; and were soon reconciled to their abandoned vices, which they seemed to resume with redoubled affection, and once more bade defiance to the vengeance of heaven.

SIERRA LEONE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1758.—The trade between western Africa and Europe commenced 1455, when prince Henry of Portugal built a fort on the island of Arguin. The English, Spaniards, French, Danes, and Dutch, began in a century after to send private ships to trade on this coast, built forts at the mouths of several rivers, and prosecuted an active trade, the greater part of which was for slaves. The English obtained their first permanent settlement at Sierra Leone 1758, the French being then located at the mouth of the Senegal and at Goree Island, the Dutch on the Gambia, the Portuguese at St. George del Mina, the Danes at Christianberg. The British settlements are now situate at Bathurst on the Gambia, at Sierra Leone, Cape Coast Castle, and Accra. The first settlers at Sierra Leone, (so called from the number of lions seen about), were the Portuguese; and in 1787 the English government sent out thither 400 negroes, discharged from the army and navy after the American war, with 60 whites, and every thing necessary to furnish a colony. A piece of ground, 20 miles square, having been purchased from one of the native chiefs, a town called Freetown was founded; but a dreadful mortality shortly afterwards reduced the colonists to one-half; and a native chief, taking advantage of their weakness, plundered the settlement, 1789, and drove them for a time to Bana Island. The government, in 1808, took the settlement out of the hands of the Sierra Leone company, which had been chartered 1802; and in 1821 all the forts and possessions of the African Company

on the Gold coast were, in like manner, transferred to the crown. Sierra Leone Proper is in general a mountainous tract of country, and extends 18 miles from north to south, and 12 from east to west. The mountains are covered to their summits with lofty forests, giving to the distant scenery a beautiful, rich, and romantic appearance; and the numerous streams of water which descend to the narrow valleys, are contracted in a large basin, called the bay of France. The aspect of the country behind Freetown, the capital, is bold and imposing, being a succession of evergreen hills rising majestically one above another. The town itself is picturesque. It rises from the water's edge, and gradually creeps up the sides of the surrounding steep, with its white dwellings and prolific gardens; whilst in the distance, emerging from high woods, appear the country mansions of white gentlemen, with patches of ground devoted to the produce of coffee and fruits. The bounty of nature, however, which makes the spot so beautiful, is one of the main causes of that evil name which pestilence has fixed upon Sierra Leone. The public ways are no sooner watered by the first showers of the wet season, than they are converted into fields; the most frequented thoroughfares become nearly impassable from the dense herbage that rises beneath the feet, particularly indigo, which is constantly obliged to be cut down, to allow the common movements of the inhabitants. Sierra Leone is surrounded by the three great negro races, the Foulahs, Mandingoes, and Jalofs; and near them are the semi-barbarous Ashantees, Timmanees, Feloops, and Dahomians. The government is vested in a lieutenant-governor, and a legislative council of seven, with a chief-justice, and a court of admiralty. The governors have been—1792, J. Clarkson and W. Dawes; 1794, Z. Macauley; 1799, T. Ludham; 1801, W. Dawes; 1803, captain W. Day; 1803, J. Ludham; 1808, T. Thomp-

son; 1810, captain Columbine; 1811, lieutenant Bones and colonel Maxwell; 1814, colonel M'Carthy; 1820, captain Grant; 1824, general MacCarthy; 1834, major-general Turner; sir Niel Campbell; colonel Denham; lieutenant-colonel Lumley; major Ricketts; colonel Findlay; Mr. Temple; major Dundas Campbell; 1837, lieutenant-colonel Doherty. The chief produce for export consists of arrow-root, dye and hard woods, hides, ginger, ivory, palm-oil, gold bullion, pepper, rice, and tobacco. Gum Senegal is brought from the oases north of the Senegal. The chief fruits are, the peach of the negroes, eatable throughout, large, and having small seeds in it; the anona, or custard-apple; the monkey-bread, with a taste like gingerbread, but rather acid, and full of seeds; the locust-tree, yielding a farinaceous substance in pods; a sort of cherry; the monkey-apple, like a nectarine; figs; and a great variety of plums. The palm-tree is chiefly about the Congo, where are limes, oranges, cassava, tamarinds, pineapples, and sweet pumpkins. The palm-tree is every thing to the native; as it supplies him with wine, oil, fishing-lines, hats, baskets, palm-nuts, cabbage, and tinder. The wine is obtained by driving a gimlet into the cabbage-like head of the tree, when a stream of sweet liquor flows into a calabash suspended beneath; and by the time it is filled (six or eight hours), fermentation has reduced the whole into a milky, tinted, and pleasant beverage.

A recent report of major Tulloch gives a gloomy picture of the effect of the climate of the west African coast on the health of Europeans. 'In the rainy season more rain fell,' says the report, 'in two days, than in Great Britain in a year, on the Gambia; double the original force of a garrison has been cut off in 12 months; and in the long average of 18 years (the major's experience), never less than 900 out of 1800 white troops died per year. Of 89 missionaries who arrived in 1824, no less than

54 died within the year, and 14 returned to England in bad health. At the isles De Loss only 39 men remained, December 31, 1825, of a troop of 220, who had arrived in the previous May. In a word, it seems proved that a fatal influence, the cause of which cannot be traced, exists along a coast of 3000 miles, comprising a great diversity of soil and climate, from the swampy marshes of the Gambia to the sandy districts of the isles De Loss; and it is singular that the Mediterranean coast of the same continent is not exempt from its baneful effects, as the French in Algiers, even since their settlement there, have been exposed to similar ravages. It cannot be ascribed to the miasma of marshes, as has been erroneously supposed, because the mortality occurs equally on every variety of soil, and at all periods.

RISE OF THE WAHHABEES, 1759.
—Abdul Ouaheb, an Arab merchant trading to Persia, after reflecting deeply upon the diversity of religion in the countries he had visited, commenced the promulgation, 1759, of the doctrine of universal toleration. Considering the Jewish, Christian, and Mahometan faiths (the prevalence of which he had alone observed) to be capable of union, he preached that God in unity is to be worshipped, and that Moses, &c., were not to be regarded as more than gifted mortals, who had done great good on earth, especially in the matter of declaring the will of the Almighty. Ouaheb also ignorantly argued upon the presumption that Moses, our Lord, and Mahomet were equally regarded by the professors of the respective faiths as mediators. It is surprising how rapidly his Socinian doctrine spread throughout Arabia. The sword of Mahomet took years to disseminate the faith of the Islam in the same country: Ouaheb saw his creed adopted throughout Araby the Free in a month. The sheik of Nejd, Mekrâmy, greatly aided the spread of the Wah-

hâbee opinions, especially when he found his temporal power extraordinarily enlarged by declaring himself a convert: he soon became, in truth, a ruler independent of the Porte; and the neglect of that government to put down the sect promptly, caused a very serious schism amongst the professors of the Islam. Mekrâmy, who survived Ouaheb, left a sort of kingly priesthood to his successors; and these, residing at Deriaie, the capital of Nejd (now called the Wakhâbee or Wechabite country, as the sect are also termed Wechabites), at last authorized attacks upon the caravans passing from Cairo and Damascus to Mecca. The Porte at length roused itself to put down the Wechabite power; but all its labours were fruitless until the appointment of Mehemet Ali to the pachalik of Egypt, 1810. In 1817 he stormed the Wakhâbee chief, Massoud, in his capital of Deriaie; and, after a hard struggle, got possession of the city, and reduced it to ruins. Since that period the sect has made no head; but it is by no means crushed, and the division it has originated has already much weakened the cause of the Islam. Ali Bey, when in Mecca, 1807, thus speaks of the Wakhâbees, who had forced their way into the sacred city, on the plea of being pilgrims to the Kaaba: 'On Feb. 3, a part of the Wakhâbee army entered to take possession of the holy city. I was in the principal street when I saw a crowd of men coming on foot; but what men! We must imagine individuals thronged together, without any other covering than a small piece of cloth round the waist, with their matchlocks upon their shoulders, and their khanjeers or large knives hung to their girdles. A column of about 6000 of them marched, preceded by four horsemen carrying each a lance, to the upper part of the town, where they began to file off in parties, to enter the temple. Already had the party in advance begun their turns round the Kaaba, and were pressing

towards the black stone to kiss it, when the others, impatient at being kept waiting, advanced in a tumult, many of them making their way with their knives. All wishing to kiss the stone, testified their zeal by precipitating themselves on the spot, amidst shouts and cries. These people are of a copper colour, short of stature, well made, and their heads so handsome that they might be compared with those of Apollo, Antinous, or the Gladiator. They have lively eyes, a finely-formed nose and mouth, beautiful teeth, and a countenance full of expression; and, in short, it may be seen at a glance that they are men the most disposed to civilization, were they to receive proper instruction.'

STATE OF ENGLISH POLICE.—At the opening of the reign of George II. disorders of every sort were complained of throughout the country; and justly enough, when it was infested with robbers, assassins, and incendiaries, the natural consequences of degeneracy, corruption, and the want of police in the inferior government of the kingdom. This defect in a great measure arose from an absurd notion, inculcated by the whigs and Hanoverians, that laws, necessary to prevent those acts of cruelty, violence, and rapine, were incompatible with the liberty of British subjects; a notion that confounds all distinctions between liberty and brutal licentiousness; as if

that freedom was desirable, in the enjoyment of which people find no security for their lives or effects. The Jacobite party, on the other hand, adhering to the old restraints as healthful, and full of security, lost no opportunity at this juncture of pointing out the peculiar depravity of the times, even in the conduct of those who preyed upon the commonwealth. Thieves and robbers were now become more desperate and savage than ever they had appeared since mankind was civilized. In the exercise of their rapine, they wounded, maimed, and even murdered the unhappy sufferers, through a wantonness of barbarity. They circulated letters, demanding sums of money from certain individuals, on pain of reducing their houses to ashes, and their families to ruin; and they even set fire to the house of a rich merchant in Bristol, who had refused to comply with their demands. The government was at length obliged to interpose, and offer a considerable reward for discovering the ruffians concerned in such execrable designs; but it was not till the Jacobite cause had begun to decline, after the battle of Culloden, and that the better order of men had resolved to forget their political differences, and unite to raise the morals of their countrymen, that a better spirit began once more to prevail.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER MAHMUD I., &c.—Mahmud, son of Mustafa II., was raised to the throne on the deposition of Ahmed III., his uncle, 1730, and continued the war with Persia, now ruled nominally by Tamasp, but in fact by his general Kuli Khan, with whom, better known as Nadir Shah, he made peace, 1736. In the Persian war he employed the grand vizir, Topal Osman, as general-in-chief; a man of singular virtue, by whose energy Constantinople was restored from absolute confusion

and licentiousness, to order and prosperity. A war with Russia followed, in which the Russians took Oczakow, 1737; and the Austrians having joined them, invaded Wallachia. The Austrians being defeated at Crotzka on the Danube, the court of Vienna submitted to a disadvantageous peace 1739, by which it gave up not only its recent conquests, but also the important town of Belgrade, the conquest of a former war. Peace was soon after made between Turkey and

Russia, and the latter power restored Ockzakow. A new war broke out with Persia 1747, and terminated by a treaty unfavourable to the Ottomans. Mahmud took little part in all these transactions, but left all the cares of state to his ministers and favourites, and died, aged 58, 1754, of fistula. His decease was hastened by an effort which he made to ride to the mosque on a Friday, to show himself to his subjects, among whom reports of his death had been circulated. **OSMAN II.** succeeded his father, and attempted, by various means, to carry out the plan of reformation begun by Topal Osman. He at length went so far as to renew, under severe penalties, the law of Mahomet, that all the followers of the Islam should abstain from wine. After a brief reign, he died, aged 59, 1757. At the death of Osman, the encroachments of Russia upon Turkey had become very marked. The possessions on the northern coast of the Black Sea were nearly all relinquished to the czar; while Moldavia and Walachia possessed Christian princes, under the protection of the Muscovite power.

THE POPEDOM. CLEMENT XII.—Lorenzo Corsini of Florence, succeeded Benedict XIII., 1730, being then on the verge of 80. He resumed the contest with the empire about the reversion of the duchies of Parma and Piacenza, but succeeded no better than his predecessors; and he endeavoured, equally in vain, to mediate in the war between Genoa and the Corsicans. He succeeded, however, in restoring the little republic of San Marino to its liberties, which had been encroached upon by Cardinal Alberoni; and died soon after, 1740. **BENEDICT XIV.**—Prospero Lambertine, a native of Bologna, was next elected; a person already favourably known for his extensive learning, and for the suavity of his temper and manners. He finally adjusted the dispute with Sardinia con-

cerning the nomination to benefices, and hastened to conciliate Sicily, Portugal, and other states, with which his more rigid predecessors had quarrelled. During the war of the Austrian succession, he remained strictly neutral; and although he could not prevent the Spaniards and Austrians, who were disputing the possession of the kingdom of Naples, from marching through his territories, on which they even fought a battle at Velletri, he gave no aid to either party. Peace being at length restored to southern Italy, Benedict turned his attention to the improvement of his dominions, encouraged learning, embellished Rome with fountains, beautified its buildings, invited men of science to the capitol, and encouraged the search after antiquities. He founded numerous academies and professors' chairs, instituted a board for examining the morals of candidates for vacant sees, and restricted the number of holidays appointed for the working classes; by which last act, he used to say, he had abolished drunkenness. In short, during his rule, Rome enjoyed peace, plenty, and prosperity; and half a century after his death, the pontificate of Lambertine was still remembered and spoken of at Rome, as the last period of unalloyed happiness which the country had enjoyed. He died aged 83, 1758; and, singular to say, protestants, as well as catholics, regarded his decease as a public calamity. **CLEMENT XIII.**—Carlo Rezzonico, a Venetian, succeeded, and was eminently distinguished for his piety and private virtues. His pontificate was a perpetual struggle to uphold the ecclesiastical immunities, and the old prerogatives of the see of Rome, against the determination of the other powers to be complete masters in their respective countries. Clement strove hard to support the Jesuits, who had become obnoxious to various courts, and who were suddenly suppressed in Portugal, Spain,

France, and Naples. In their distress, most of the expelled fathers sought an asylum in the papal states, and found in Clement a generous protector; while all the remonstrances and threats of France and Spain could not induce him to abolish the Order, which he considered as the firmest support of the Roman see. The king of France seized upon Avignon, and the king of Naples upon Benevento: still the pope held firm till his death. In addition to the states mentioned, Austria, Bavaria, Venice, Tuscany, decreed that only native subjects should hold benefices in their respective states, and that no separate donations or legacies should be made to the Church, or in other words, to the apostolic see. In the midst of all these blows against the papal authority, Clement died, 1769; and a beautiful kneeling statue of him was placed in St. Peter's by Pius VI., the work of Canova, 1795.

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XV.—Louis XV., only surviving son of the duc de Bourgogne, eldest son of Louis the dauphin, son of Louis XIV. succeeded his great-grandfather, Louis XIV., 1715, at five years of age. The question of the regency during his minority was scarcely settled by the election of the duke of Orleans, when Law's project reduced 100,000 families of France to comparative beggary. The duke released the Jansenists from their imprisonment, as his first act; and then prepared to oppose the designs of the Spanish minister, Alberoni, whose influence over every European court but that of England was very extraordinary. A war with Spain was concluded in favour of France, and the obnoxious minister was banished his country, 1720. The abbé Dubois, a man of corrupt principles, was next the minister of the regent, who made him archbishop of Rouen; and the pope conferred on him a cardinal's hat for his support of the bull *Unigenitus*, which aimed at the suppression of the Jansenists. Death, how-

ever, seized Dubois, 1728; and Louis, being now of age, took the reins into his own hands, under the guidance of first the duc de Bourbon, and soon after of his preceptor, cardinal Fleuri, a man of great virtue and sound judgment. In the contest which ensued respecting Poland 1733, Louis took the part of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, against the house of Saxony, whose cause Russia and Austria supported; but the treaty of Vienna decided against Stanislaus, who, on being a second time expelled the Polish throne, was satisfied to receive the duchy of Lorraine in lieu, 1736. The two Sicilies were, by the same treaty, confirmed to Don Carlos, son of Philip V. of Spain. Thus was a third Bourbon dynasty founded in Europe. The French in 1740 joined the king of Prussia against Maria Theresa; and when their army had been beaten by the English at Dettingen, 1743, Louis himself took the command, and was successful at Fontenoi, 1745. All parties, however, were now weary of war; and the husband of Maria Theresa being declared emperor, peace was made, 1748, at Aix-la-Chapelle. Just at this period, the French began to lose ground in India; when the talents of Mr. (afterwards lord) Clive shone forth at Arcot, where the English were besieged by their troops. Their American possessions also, including their Mississippi colony, were gradually wrested from them; and Louis, in revenge, not only determined on seizing Hanover, but on making a descent on England.

But while meditating these foreign proceedings, Louis found he had most to fear from his own discontented subjects. France had, in him, long enjoyed a monarch, easy, complying, good-natured, and averse from all that wore the appearance of business or of war. Contented with the pleasures of indolence, he sought no greatness beyond what he enjoyed, nor pursued any ambitious

aim through the dictates of his own disposition. Of all men on earth, such a prince had the greatest reason to expect an exemption from plots against his person, and cabals among his subjects; yet was an attempt made upon his life, by a man, who, though placed in the lowest sphere of fortune, had resolution to face the greatest dangers, and enthusiasm sufficient to sustain, without shrinking, all the tortures which the cruelty of man could invent, or his crimes render necessary. The name of this fanatic was Robert François Damien, born in the city of Arras. He had lived as a servant in several families, whence he had been generally dismissed on account of the impatience, the melancholy, and the sullenness of his disposition. On the 5th of January, 1757, as the king was stepping into his coach, to return to Trianon, whence he had that day come to Versailles, Damien, mingling among his attendants, stabbed him with a knife on the right side, between the fourth and fifth ribs. His majesty, applying his hand immediately to his side, cried out, 'I am wounded! Seize him; but do not hurt him.' Happily, the wound was not dangerous; as the knife, taking an oblique direction, missed the vital parts. As for the assassin, he made no attempt to escape; but suffering himself quietly to be seized, was conveyed to the guard-room, where, being interrogated if he had committed the horrid action, he boldly answered in the affirmative. A process against him was instantly commenced at Versailles; many persons, supposed accessaries to the design upon the king's life, were sent to the Bastille; the assassin himself was put to the torture; and the most excruciating torments were applied, with intention to extort a confession of the reasons that could induce him to so execrable an attempt upon his sovereign. Incisions were made into the muscular parts of his arms and thighs, into which boiling oil was poured; and every refinement on cruelty

that human invention could suggest, was practised, but without effect. Nothing could overcome his obstinacy; and his silence was construed into a presumption that he must have had accomplices in the plot. To render his punishment more public and conspicuous, he was removed to Paris, there to undergo a repetition of all his former tortures, with such additional circumstances as the most fertile and cruel dispositions could devise for increasing his misery and torment. Being conducted to the Conciergerie, an iron bedstead, which likewise served for a chair, was prepared for him, and to this he was fastened with chains. The torture was again applied, and a physician ordered to attend, to see what degree of pain he could support. Nothing, however, material was extorted; for what he one moment confessed, he recanted the next. It is not within our province (and we consider it as a felicity) to relate all the circumstances of this cruel and tragical event. Sufficient it is, that after suffering the most exquisite torments which human nature could invent, or man support, his judges thought proper to terminate his misery by a death shocking to imagination, and shameful to humanity. On the 28th of March he was conducted, amid a vast concourse of the populace, to the Grève, the common place of execution, stripped naked, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burned in liquid flaming sulphur; his thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red-hot pincers; boiling oil, molten lead, resin, and sulphur, were poured into the wounds; tight ligatures were tied round his limbs to prepare him for dismemberment; and young and vigorous horses being then applied to the draft, the unhappy criminal was pulled with all their force, to the utmost extension of his sinews, for the space of an hour, during all which time he preserved his senses and constancy. At length the physician and surgeon attending declared

it would be impossible to accomplish the dismemberment, unless the tendons were separated. Upon which, orders were given to the executioner to cut the sinews at the joints of the arms and legs. The horses drew afresh: a thigh and arm were separated, and, after several pulls, the unfortunate wretch expired under the extremity of pain. His body and limbs were reduced to ashes under the scaffold; his father, wife, daughter, and family were banished the kingdom for ever; and the name of Damien was effaced and obliterated, and never more allowed to be used by Frenchmen.

Though in conformity with his design to punish England, the fleet of Louis took Minorca, and, aided by the Austrians, he forced Frederick of Prussia, the ally of England, to sign the treaty of Closter-Seven, whereby Hanover was ceded to France, yet did Frederick soon after beat the united French and Austrians, 50,000 strong, at Rosbach, 1757, and, by the aid of prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, recover Hanover, after the victory of Minden, 1759. The French, foiled in their attempts upon England, ventured to attack Ireland, 1760, under Thurot; but captain Elliot assailed their ships, and killed their admiral; and in 1763 a treaty of peace between the two countries decided that Canada should belong to England, and Pondicherry in India to France.

During so long a war, the domestic affairs of the French had become greatly disordered. The state of the finances was the most obvious difficulty of ministers, to whose remonstrances Louis would constantly answer with coldness, 'Try to make things proceed so long as I live: when I am dead they must go as they will.' Madame de Pompadour, the king's mistress, had patronized Voltaire, D'Alembert, Diderot, and other impugnors of Christianity, and supporters of materialism and sensual philosophy, and had encouraged them to write against the Church,

which, supported in France by the Jesuits, had frequently attempted to restrain all liberty of conscience. The proximate issue of the contest was the abolition of the Jesuits by Louis's minister, the duc de Choiseul, and the remote one that horrible revolution, which in the next reign overturned religion and social order, and deluged the kingdom with blood. The parliament being at length made wholly subservient to the court party, Louis well and prophetically exclaimed, 'Though the kingdom is old, it will at least last my time;' and dying soon after, May 10, 1774, aged 64, he left his successor a task, which the most skilful of rulers would hardly have dared to enter upon, with any rational hope of a fortunate termination.

RUSSIA UNDER PETER II., &c.—Peter II., grandson of Catherine, (son of czarovitz Alexis, who had been put to death,) succeeded his grandmother, Catherine I., in 1727; and many domestic revolutions happened during his rule of three years, none of which was more remarkable than the disgrace of Menzikov, then esteemed the richest subject in Europe. The prince's ambition had led him to urge the young emperor to marry his eldest daughter; whereon the Dolgorucki family, who had great influence over Peter, induced him to grant an order for Menzikov's arrest, and banishment to Siberia. Peter died of the small-pox 1730; and as the male issue of Peter the Great was now extinct, the Russian senate, for political reasons, passed over the duchess of Mecklenburg, eldest daughter of Iwan I., Peter's brother, and selected that prince's second daughter, the duchess of Courland, who ascended the throne as the empress ANNE. The Dolgorucki party, who had advanced her above her sister, purposed reducing the government to a limited monarchy, and made her accept the crown with that proviso; but, under the management of count Jagouzinski, she

assembled the council of state soon after her arrival in Moscow, and, surrounded by guards with pieces loaded, announced herself sole empress and autocrat, with the full authority and prerogatives which her ancestors had enjoyed. The revolutionary nobles could not but acquiesce; the Dolgorucki family was banished; the people received the news with rejoicings; and the empress left Moscow to take up her abode at St. Petersburg. The first acts of the new reign were a treaty of peace with Denmark, another with Persia, and the reception of the first embassy to any European court from China. At this time, and till her death, Anne's favourite, Bieren, ruled her councils. She created him duke of Courland; and although he appeared little in any public capacity, no measure was adopted without his concurrence. Many very severe edicts were promulgated, and carried into execution, at his suggestion. On the death of Augustus I. of Poland, 1733, Russia joined with Poland to promote the election of the deceased king's son, while Leczinski, who had formerly held the throne, was supported in his claim by France; and, by the bravery of field-marshal Munich, who took Dantzic, and then aided the Austrians against Turkey and the Tartars, Augustus II. was advanced to the Polish throne. Peace with Turkey had just been signed, when the empress was seized with an illness which terminated in her death, 1740. Anne reformed the gross habits of her court, by discountenancing the drunkenness in which both sexes had been accustomed to indulge. She also objected to the gambling propensities of the nobles, patronized music and theatrical entertainments, and established an Italian opera. In 1739 the celebrated palace of ice was built by her direction, to honour the nuptials of prince Galitzin with a peasant-girl. As a part of the frolic, the pair were compelled to pass the

wedding-night in one of the rooms, all the furniture of which, including the bed, was of ice. By Anne's will, she was succeeded by IWAN VI. (son of Anthony duke of Brunswick, and grandson by his mother, of the empress's neglected sister, Catherine), 1740, then an infant of three months, who was to be represented during his minority by his guardian, Bieren. The duchess of Mecklenburg, however, soon caused the minister to be arrested on a charge of treason, and, with her husband, ruled the empire in her son's name. A very prosperous war was now carried on with Sweden, and every thing proceeded quietly in domestic matters for a year; when in 1741, in one night, a very powerful conspiracy effected the proclamation and reception by the people of ELIZABETH, daughter of Peter the Great and Catherine; and the duchess, her husband, and her son were made prisoners. Elizabeth began with abolishing capital punishments, by which mistaken humanity she introduced all manner of licence into her court and empire; while her own example, according to historians, by no means improved its morals. In order to throw the succession into the ancient line, she resolved never to marry; with which view she declared the duke of Holstein Gottorp, who was descended from her elder sister, to be her heir, and made him give up his right to the throne of Sweden. Through her excessive indolence, the government of Elizabeth was wholly directed by favourites, who rapidly succeeded each other. In this manner she sent troops to aid Maria Theresa in her succession war; and, in the Seven Years' War, opposed Frederick of Prussia. In the latter contest, her army entered Berlin, and had nearly reduced Frederick to despair, when the empress was seized with an illness, which carried her to the grave in her 52d year, 1762. Elizabeth wisely endeavoured to complete the code of laws begun by her father;

but she occasionally forgot the mildness with which she had commenced her rule. Numerous persons were subjected to the terrible punishment of the knout, with exile to Siberia,—especially madame Lapoukin, a handsome and clever woman, whose chief crime was her superior beauty.

SWEDEN UNDER ADOLPHUS FREDERICK.—The cause of this prince's election has been related in the last reign; and he accordingly succeeded Frederick of Hesse as king of Sweden, 1751. His new dignity, however, proved to him a crown of thorns. Through a strange medley of affairs, the French had acquired vast influence in all the deliberations of the Swedish senate; and the intrigues of the senators forced Adolphus to take part in the Seven Years' War against Prussia, 1756. That contest was disagreeable, not only to the people, but also to the king: the nation had never before made so mean an appearance: and upon Russia making peace with the king of Prussia, 1762, the Swedes did the same, upon the terms of leaving things as they stood before the war. Adolphus died dispirited, 1771, aged 61. He was a prince of good intention; and, amongst his attempts to benefit his people, may be recorded his foundation of the academy of belles-lettres at Torneo.

DENMARK AND NORWAY UNDER CHRISTIERN VI., &c.—Christiern VI. succeeded his father, Frederick IV., 1730, and instantly began to cultivate peace with his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes. In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction, he sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland; and his quarrel in 1738 with George II. of England, respecting the lordship of Steinhorst, in which some blood was shed, concluded by a treaty, in which Christiern availed himself of the British monarch's predilection for his German dominions,

by engaging him to pay to Denmark 70,000*l.* yearly, on condition of 7000 troops being kept in constant readiness by Christiern for the protection of Hanover. Christiern died 1746, with the high character of being the father of his people; and was succeeded by his son, FREDERICK V., who had in 1743 married Louisa, daughter of George II. of England. He improved upon his father's plan for the happiness of his people, but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war; for it was by his intervention that the treaty of Closter-Seven was concluded between the duke of Cumberland and the French general Richelieu, 1757. The peaceful character of Frederick brought consolation to him upon his deathbed; and, sending in his last illness, for his son Christiern, he thus addressed him: 'It is a great consolation to me, my son, to reflect, on leaving the world, that I have never willingly offended any one, and that I have shed the blood of none of my subjects: and I die thankful to God that such is the truth.' His death happened 1766, in his 48th year.

SPAIN UNDER FERDINAND VI.—He was the son of Philip V. by Mary of Savoy, and succeeded his father 1746. He was surnamed the Wise, and was a most benevolent prince. Two days in the week he regularly devoted to redressing personally the grievances of his subjects, and no man was then denied access to his presence. At the peace of 1748, he confirmed to his brother Charles (who became his successor in Spain), the crown of the Two Sicilies, and obtained for another brother the duchies of Parma and Placentia. Under his paternal government, Spain again began to lift her head among the nations. Industry, so rare a virtue in the peninsula, was encouraged; abuses were reformed; and commerce and plenty were restored by the construction of roads and canals throughout the country. But while thus benefiting his people, the monarch fell a victim to melancholy for the

loss of his queen, in his 47th year, 1759.

PORTUGAL UNDER JOSEPH I.—Joseph, prince of Brazil, succeeded his father John V. 1750; and having commenced his reign with a reform of abuses, he directed, amongst other regulations, that no sentence of the Inquisition should be carried into effect, until its approval by the privy-council. This, as may be imagined, roused the anger of the Jesuits, who, in the spread of infidel opinions amongst their neighbours the French, saw the way made for their easy progress in Portugal. The calamities of the earthquake which destroyed the capital, 1755, and a famine which ensued, had scarcely been surmounted, when an attempt to assassinate the king, whose life was saved by the personal courage of his coachman, 1758, occasioned the expulsion from the kingdom of the Jesuits, who were alleged to have meditated the plot. Execution followed execution upon this, and the scaffolds and wheels of torture reeked with the noblest blood of Portugal. The Spaniards, moreover, invaded the country with fury, laid it every where waste, and were marching upon Lisbon, with the war-cry of 'Delenda est Carthago!' when the interference of England saved the capital; and matters being arranged with Spain, Joseph was enabled to pass his latter days in comparative peace, dying, aged 62, 1777.

THE TWO SICILIES UNDER CARLOS I.—The Spaniards acknowledged not the grants of Sicily and Naples at the treaty of Rastadt, 1714, to the empire; and accordingly in 1718 they made an attempt to recover Sicily, but failed in consequence of the vigilance of the English admiral Byng, who actually annihilated their fleet. In 1734, however, the Spanish court renewed the design with success; and the infant Don Carlos, son of Philip V., having driven the Germans out, was acknowledged grand-duke of Tuscany, and crowned king at Palermo, with his father's consent, 1735. Under his rule, Sicily

and Naples rapidly returned to prosperity; and the people of both countries saw with regret his departure for Spain, 1759, to ascend the throne of his brother.—(*See Tuscany ceded to Germany.*)

GERMANY UNDER CHARLES VII. &c.—By the pragmatic sanction, 1713, Maria Theresa had been constituted heir of his dominions by her father Charles VI.; but on that emperor's decease, 1740, Charles of Bavaria seized the throne of Germany, calling himself Charles VII. Hereupon commenced what is called the War of the Austrian Succession, a contest of five years' duration. Maria quitted Vienna, and assembling the states of Hungary, threw herself with her infant son in the midst of the deputies, and thus addressed them in Latin: 'Abandoned by my friends, persecuted by my enemies, attacked by my nearest relations, I have no resource left but in your fidelity, courage, and constancy; I intrust into your hands the children of your kings: they depend on you for life and safety.' The appeal was received with applause; and in a short period, she who had just before scarcely a town wherein to give birth with security to her infant, saw Lintz, Passau, and Munich open their gates to her faithful Hungarians. Prussia being next detached from the alliance against her by the cession of Silesia and Glatz, she was crowned queen of Bohemia, 1743; and soon after saw the king of England in person obtain in her favour the victory of Dettingen. Notwithstanding a second dispute with Prussia, Maria had the gratification, on the decease of Charles VII., 1745, of placing her husband, FRANCIS OF LORRAINE, on the imperial throne, reserving Hungary alone to herself. Francis had succeeded his father as duke of Lorraine and Bar, 1729; but in consequence of the war of the Polish succession, Lorraine was ceded to Stanislaus Leczinski, father-in-law of Louis XV., to revert after his death to the crown of France, and Francis received Tuscany in ex-

change, which duchy became vacant by the extinction of the house of Medici. In 1748 the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle restored peace to Germany and to Europe; but in 1756 a new war, that of the Seven Years, broke out between Prussia and Austria, which was terminated by the peace of Hubertsberg, 1763. In that contest, Maria's general, Daun, drove Frederick of Prussia from Bohemia in so masterly a way, that she established the military order which bears her name, in commemoration of the heroic exploit. During her husband's sway, Maria Theresa exerted herself to improve the imperial dominions, patronized the arts, established scientific institutions, and formed many splendid hospitals for the brave men who had bled for their country. Francis died 1765, aged 58, and had himself been a steady patron of literature, of the arts, and of commerce.

POLAND UNDER AUGUSTUS II. FREDERICK.—On the death of Augustus I., 1733, his son Augustus was supported by Austria and Russia in his claim to the throne, while Louis XV. favoured his father-in-law, the deposed Leczinski; but though the Poles preferred the latter as a native prince, and disputed the passage of the Vistula with the Russian army sent to enforce the claims of Augustus, the Muscovite interest prevailed. Augustus was an indolent person, insomuch that he had been wholly averse from contending for the throne, and was in fact seated thereon wholly by the exertions of his friends, and to his own regret; and though crowned at Cracow, 1734, he did not become undisputed master of Poland till after the diet of Pacification held at Warsaw, 1736. He was then compelled to promise that the country should be independent of Saxony, that none but Poles should be promoted to high posts, and that only 1200 Saxon soldiers should be maintained in Poland. The early part of his reign was sufficiently bustling; for his favourite minister,

count Bruhl, formed alliances and made war as he chose, always sure of the assent of his inert master. At one time Poland thus leagued with Austria to check the aggrandizement of Prussia; and at another the Saxon and Prussian armies fought together, the former to add Bohemia, and the latter Silesia to his own dominions—both being Austrian possessions. Again, in 1745, Bruhl joined Austria and England to defend the rights of the house of Hapsburg, which the death of Charles VI. without male issue had placed in a precarious situation, while a power, so bent upon its own extension as Prussia, existed. Frederick of Prussia, however, marched 100,000 men into Saxony against the allies, and took Dresden. A truce in 1746 restored Saxony to Augustus; but Bruhl was still inclined to intrigue; and joining Russia in an attempt to dismember Prussia, Frederick succeeded in taking prisoners the whole Saxon army in their camp at Pirna, 1756. Saxony, at once degraded, fell into insignificance; and though Poland was not ravaged by invading armies, it suffered equal injury. Its diets, which were seldom held, were never allowed to pass a law; Augustus, ever hunting, or dancing, or feasting, allowed the supremacy of Russia to establish itself in Poland; while pictures, porcelain-fêtes, and music were the only cares of its monarch. Augustus died, aged 61, 1763. From the marriage of his daughter, Maria Josephine, with the dauphin of France, three kings of that country sprang—Louis XVI. and XVIII., and Charles X.

PRUSSIA UNDER FREDERICK II. (THE GREAT).—This prince was the son of Frederick-William I., and succeeded him 1740. Having been estranged from his father, by the foolish interference of his mother, queen Sophia, sister of our George II., in his plan of education, the young Frederick had planned his escape to England, with two companions, Katt and Keith; but the

king sent messengers to overtake his son, and he was then placed as a prisoner in the Castle of Custrin. Keith escaped; but Katt was taken, and beheaded in the young prince's sight. Finding, on his accession, 1740, a full treasury, and a powerful army, his thirst for military glory tempted him to embrace any opportunity that might offer; and the death in the same year of Charles VI., which left Germany to a female, caused him to aspire at nothing short of adding the empire itself to his dominions. He, however, began by cajoling Maria-Theresa, the daughter of Charles; and promised to support her cause, if she would relinquish the petty duchies of Glogau and Sagan to him. Maria, however, refused compliance; Frederick seized Silesia; and the Austrian Succession War began. George II. of England, the only ally of Maria-Theresa, advised her to make peace with Frederick after he had beaten her troops at Czaslau, 1742; and a treaty being effected at Berlin, Silesia and Glatz were ceded to Prussia. Charles VII., as the elector of Bavaria now styled himself, was still in arms against Maria; but as the Austrians were constantly his superiors, his cause began to decline, when Frederick, fearing that he should lose Silesia, again secretly entered into an alliance with France, 1744, to support Charles. Frederick and the Bavarians now took Prague; and various less important advantages were gained by them over Maria, when the death of Charles, 1745, and the defeat of the Bavarians, induced the son of Charles, the young elector, to make peace with the empress. She had thenceforward only Prussia to fear: but as England continued on her side, and the Netherlands and Saxony now took up her cause, her troops were enabled to encounter Frederick in several obstinate combats, which, though usually favourable to Prussia, did no more than secure possession of Silesia to Frederick, 1745. Frederick hereupon agreed to acknowledge Francis I., the husband

of Maria-Theresa, as emperor; and thus ended the Austrian Succession War. During the eleven years' peace that followed, Frederick devoted himself with unremitting activity to the internal administration of his dominions, the organization of the army, and to literary pursuits. With his own hand he drew up a new code of laws, wrote the 'Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg' (his own family), and a didactic poem on the art of war—all in French. Instead of indulging in the pleasures of the chase, he made journeys to different parts of his kingdom. He endeavoured to make agriculture, manufactures, commerce, and the arts flourish; and though he understood not the true principles of commerce, he displayed a just taste for the arts, by expending large sums in decorating the palaces of Berlin and Potsdam, and in erecting many splendid edifices in those two cities. On the breaking out of war between England and France, 1755, George II. had induced Frederick to protect his domain of Hanover from invasion; and this alliance of England and Prussia caused Russia, Austria, and Saxony, to join France. Frederick, again fearing the loss of his beloved Silesia, lost no time in invading Saxony, 1756; and thus began the most memorable of the many continental wars prior to those of the French Revolution,—'The Seven Years' War,' in which all Europe became involved. Frederick's object in entering Saxony was simply to pass into Bohemia; but Augustus II. of Poland, who also ruled Saxony, opposed his progress, and saw his whole force obliged to surrender in their intrenched camp at Pirna to Frederick. The latter enlisted all the privates into his own army, advanced thereon into Bohemia, and defeated the Austrians at Prague, 1757; but he was immediately after spiritedly driven off by marshal Daun, who had arrived with a fresh Austrian force. Almost at the moment of this reverse, the French took Hanover from the duke of Cumber-

land, and the Russians and Swedes entered Prussia at the north. However desperate his affairs, Frederick attacked and severely beat the united French and Austrians at Rosbach, and entering Silesia, gained a victory over the Austrians at Lissa. The English parliament thereupon, in admiration of the talents of Frederick, granted him a subsidy of 670,000*l.*, which became an annual supply; and in 1758, Frederick beat the Russians, though with great loss on both sides, at Zorndorf. In 1759 he was himself beaten by the Russians at Kunnersdorf; but when Frederick thought even Berlin must fall to his Muscovite foes, his skilful conduct induced the Russian general, instead of entering Brandenburg, to join the Austrians in Lusatia. In 1760 Frederick bombarded and destroyed the finest part of Dresden; while on the other hand the Russians and Austrians entered Berlin, which was saved from plunder by a composition, and had to pay heavy contributions. Berlin was soon evacuated; and Frederick, who was hastening to its relief, turned into Saxony, where he was induced, by the desperate condition of his affairs, to venture to attack the Austrians, who were strongly posted at Torgau. He defeated them, after an obstinate battle, compelled them to retreat, and was rejoiced to see both Russians and Swedes in like manner evacuate his dominions. During the year 1761, Frederick, convinced of his precarious state, remained immovable in a strong camp he had formed in Silesia; and in 1762, the death of his implacable enemy, Elizabeth of Russia—as if by the magician's wand—retrieved his fortunes. Peter II., who succeeded Elizabeth, was as madly an admirer of the great Frederick, as his predecessor had been his foe; and a treaty was speedily concluded between Prussia and Russia. Peace was also made with the Swedes; and though Peter was soon deposed, Catherine, who succeeded him, observed a strict neutrality du-

ring the remainder of the war; and not only England and France consented to terminate hostilities, but Frederick and Maria-Theresa came to an understanding, 1763, and thus put an end to 'The Seven Years' War.' On this occasion, the two powers chiefly concerned (Austria and Prussia) mutually guaranteed the integrity of each other's German dominions, and consented to restore to Augustus II. of Poland all that had been taken from him. After some attempts on the part of Frederick to promote the commerce and general welfare of his dominions, he united with Russia, 1764, to support the election of Stanislaus Poniatowski to the throne of Poland. Politically sagacious, Frederick aided the cause of the *dissidents* in that country; and in 1772, he consented to its first partition, by which he obtained Polish Prussia entire, and Great Poland as far as the river Netz. Various petty disputes occurred after this period between Prussia and Austria, each contending for its own aggrandizement; but when the emperor had laid a plan, 1785, to obtain Bavaria in exchange for the Netherlands, Frederick defeated it, by concluding the alliance between the German princes, called 'Furstenbund,' which has been considered the masterpiece of his policy. Frederick died, aged 74, 1786. There can be little doubt of the claim of this prince to the worldly title of 'great,' when we remark his extraordinary exertions and ability to appropriate the same epithet for his country, which he assuredly first made great in extent, great in resources, great in national influence. He, however, was too expedient a king to be a good man; and, moreover, his patronage of the atheists and demoralizers of France and continental Europe (especially Voltaire), not only abstracted much from the splendour of his general character, but actually brought woes upon his country which, during his successor's reign, went far at one period towards its annihilation.

So clearly does it seem that *nations*, for the virtues and the crimes of the individuals which compose them, can only be rewarded or punished in their collective state, nationally, and in a temporal manner.

PERSIA UNDER NADIR SHAH, &c.—It has been related that Tamasp Kuli Khan placed Tamasp, the son of sultan Hosein, upon the throne, after driving out the Afghans, 1730. That ambitious general, however, on finding his own influence less than he had anticipated, dethroned and imprisoned Tamasp, 1731, and gave the throne to his infant son, to whom the assembly of chiefs gave the title of Abbas III. In the name of this devoted child, Tamasp marched against the Turks; and in a war of three years recovered, by his great military energy, if not skill, all that had been taken from the Persians. The young Abbas dying, 1732, Tamasp resolved to ascend the throne himself; and having, in an assembly of the nobles, declared his own important services, and signified his wish to retire after so many years of toil, and pass the remainder of his days in peace—the usual eastern method of gaining the point, when force is not intended to be used—the Persian army (of more than 100,000 men) opposed his removal from command, and obliged the assembly to proclaim him sovereign in place of Abbas. On assuming the royal dignity, Tamasp took the title of Nadir Shah; and conceiving that a throne thus ascended would be better maintained by war than peace, he invaded India, 1732, where he defeated Mohammed Shah, then Great Mongul, and occupied Delhi. No less than 215,000 Monguls are said to have fallen on this occasion; and the booty obtained by Nadir at Delhi has been estimated at 115,000*l.* sterling. The Shah and his chief nobles were obliged to make up the sum, demanded by Nadir to insure his departure from the country, with their jewels and richest furniture; and amongst the latter, was the throne of the emperors

of Delhi, made in the shape of a peacock, and richly ornamented with diamonds and other precious stones. On receiving his demands in full, Nadir retired from India, and attacked the Usbec Tartars, who during all his wars had been his secret enemies. He twice defeated them, took Bokhara, their chief city, and added the greater portion of their country to Persia. He now made Meshed his capital, and undertook the reform of his people; a task for which it would seem he was wholly unfit. Attempting to change the religion of the Persians from the Shiah to the Suni form, and finding considerable opposition to his views, he hanged several of the chief Moslem priests, and even put out the eyes of his own son. Soon after the last act, he fell into a state bordering on insanity; and having vowed to sacrifice half the nobles to his vengeance, he was assassinated by them while asleep in his tent, in his 60th year, 1747. The death of Nadir was followed by a period of confusion. Ahmed Shah, one of his officers, seized upon Khorasan, and Kaubul, and established the kingdom of the Afghans; Mohammed Husein, a Persian chief, occupied the eastern shore of the Caspian; and Ali Adil, the nephew of Nadir, ascended the throne of the now contracted Persia,—from that period to the present known as Western Persia, in contradistinction to its divided eastern half, Kaubul. It was with no small difficulty that Ali maintained even the remnant of power that had fallen to his share; since no less than eight of his relatives attempted to make that share smaller, by seizing each a town or two for himself. In this way Nadir's capital Meschid was, after a variety of revolutions, seized by Rokh Shah, who thereupon overran Khorasan, and was for thirty years tyrant of that district, until it was again torn from his grasp by a host of competitors. Ali Adil died 1750; when the scene of confusion was converted into a state of anarchy. During three years, no one could be re-

garded as ruler of Persia; and after much blood had been shed by the numerous rivals for the throne, Kharim Khan, chief of the Zend tribes, by birth a Kurd, who had been one of Nadir's favourite officers, was acknowledged Vakil, or regent (since he never would take the title of Shah), 1753. He constituted Shiraz the capital of Persia, in gratitude for the aid he had received from the people of the south; and in a short period completely subdued every competitor, and restored peace to the country. His long and wise rule of twenty-six years brought prosperity and wealth to Persia; and although he failed in recovering east Persia, he was, when he died, 1779, lamented by all the tribes under his sway as their father and friend; the poets designating him 'the glory and sun of the East.'

FOUNDATION OF KAUBUL.—It has been shown that, on the death of Nadir Shah, 1747, Persia became a prey to faction; and that Ahmed Shah succeeded in converting the eastern portion of the country into a new state, now known as Kaubul, the ancient city so called being made its capital. Ahmed was an Afghan by birth, chief of the Suddozyes, one of the tribes of Abdaulees, and had been employed with his mountain troops in the armies of Nadir. Often had the Afghans, after their expulsion from Ghuzni, 998, attempted to recover their little kingdom on the plain, but as constantly were they driven up by either the Persians or the Monguls into their hills of refuge; inasmuch that they had been compelled to subsist for seven centuries and a half by predatory warfare, in the manner of the Arabs,—whom indeed they are said to excel in the management of horses. It was by the help of Hadjee Jumah, head of the Barukzyes, the chief Abdaulee tribe, that Ahmed seized the district of Kaubul; and having done so, he, with the assumed title of Duri Durani, pearl of pearls, marched into Khorasan; and after forcing tribute

from Rokh Shah, an usurper like himself, added Herat to his dominions. Five times after this he invaded India; and he sacked Delhi even with circumstances of greater cruelty than Nadir. He moreover routed the Mahrattas at Paniput with such fearful slaughter, that scarcely a fourth of their army of 80,000 escaped from the battle and the pursuit. In 1762 he crossed the Indus, with a view to exterminate the Sikhs, whose incursions had given him great trouble; and having defeated their army, and driven such as escaped into the woods, he set a price upon all who professed their tenets. In consequence of this cruel decree, heaps of the dead bodies of the Sikhs were piled up in every town and village of Lahore; but Ahmed, still relentless, on hearing that a large body of the sect was to congregate at a great annual festival, resolved on marching upon the assembly unawares. The Sikhs, however, were fully prepared; and an eclipse of the sun happening during the battle which ensued, the Moslems regarded it as an ill-omen, and fled in all directions. Ahmed in vain attempted to rally his forces; and he was compelled to see the Sikhs possess themselves of all the north-western portion of Hindustan. He, however, secured the Punjab, which, with Balkh, Sind, Cachemire, and Beluchistan, he added to his kingdom. He at last reduced the Ghilzies, a northern tribe particularly opposed to the Abdaulees; and having subdued the other Abdaulee tribes, he changed their title to Durani, his own assumed name. He died, aged 49, after a reign of 26 years, 1773.

HOLLAND UNDER WILLIAM IV.—This prince succeeded as stadtholder 1711; and, after the death of Heinsius the pensionary, a war again commenced with France, 1743, the issue of which was highly favourable to the arms of Louis XV. Menin and Courtrai fell to the French in 1744, Ghent and Ostend 1745, Antwerp and Brussels 1746, and Bergen-op-

Zoom 1747. Marshal Saxe, the French general, thus revenged the exploits of the duke of Marlborough during the sway of Heinsius; for although at the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, a barrier, composed of a great number of fortified towns, was allowed to the Dutch as a protection against future French aggression, barriers are but a slender defence against the modern improvements in war, and these munified places fell one after another, as just stated, to the troops of Louis. The combined army of Dutch and English too, commanded by the duke of Cumberland, was driven from post to post, without being able to make a single successful effort from the beginning to the end of the war, 1748. It is probable that the bad success of the contest had the effect of cooling the affections of the Dutch towards Britain; for, in the war which broke out 1755, their attachment to France was evident, and led eventually to a war with the English, as will be seen. William IV. died, 1766.

DELHI UNDER MOHAMMED SHAH, &c.—This twelfth of the Great Monguls succeeded Russia-ad-Dowlat 1718, and was the grandson of Bahader Shah. During the dissensions of the preceding reigns, and those of the early part of his own, the authority of the emperors of Delhi had been greatly impaired; the governors of provinces began to assume independence, particularly the viceroy of the Dekhin, Asaf Jah; the Nizam-al-Mulk, who founded the modern sovereignty of Hyderabad; and Sadat Ali Khan, governor of Oude, the ancestor of the present king of Oude; whilst the Mahrattas extended their conquests in western Hindustan, and carried their depredations to the gates of Agra. At length the factions of the nobles invited Nadir Shah to India, 1732, and gave him an easy conquest. Having occupied Delhi, the imperious Persian, upon slight disturbance, ordered a general massacre of the inhabitants; nor would he return home

until Mohammed had bound himself to pay him an immense sum, and to cede Kaubul, Tatta, and part of Multan to Persia. Mohammed died 1747, and was succeeded by his son AHMED, who, during a brief reign, saw the empire of the Monguls rapidly decline. The whole country around the city of Delhi had started into petty kingdoms: Agra was seized by the Djats, a Hindu tribe; Kaubul and the Punjaub by Ahmed the Afghan; the Rohillas, also Afghans, had obtained the eastern districts; Oude was a kingdom ruled by Sadat Ali, under the modest title of visir; Bengal was in the hands of Aliverdi Khan; the Dekhin in those of Nazir Jang; the Mahrattas, under Ram Raja, had seized a large territory in the south and west; and last, not least, the English had become formidable at Madras. After much domestic rebellion, Ahmed Shah was deposed and blinded, 1753, by Ghazi-uddin, the visir, who raised a grandson of Bahader to the throne, by the title of ALEMGIH II. A period of great disturbance had commenced, and continued for several years, Delhi daily diminishing in power and extent; and at length the visir murdered the object of his former choice, 1760, and placed SHAH JEHAN, another prince of Bahader's house, in his room.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER GEORGE II. —Under the first George, the Company's territories had gradually increased, by purchases permitted on the part of the emperors of Delhi, and the smaller chieftains of Hindustan; and the French also had ventured to form settlements on the Coromandel coast, the chief of which was Pondicherry. The usual results at length followed this proximity of French and English: from petty bickerings, something like hostilities arose between them, induced either by war between their respective countries in Europe, or by their own interference in the constant squabbles of the Indian petty princes. Although actually independent, the

subahdars or imperial viceroys, continued, to the last moment of the empire, to solicit firmans, or patents, from the court of Delhi, confirming them in the power they already possessed; and as these patents were commonly despised by the pretenders to thrones, appeals were continually made to the French and English settlers, to act as arbitrators. A decided warfare was therefore engendered, 1750, between the latter, when, in consequence of the French governor of Pondicherry, Dupleix, having undertaken to drive out the subahdar of the Dekhin, the English took his part. Dupleix's object was to establish the grandson of the subahdar, Muzeffer Jang, on the throne, rather than allow of the succession of the old chief's son, Nazir Jang, but the English prevented the change; and when in 1753, Dupleix in like manner supported a rival against Mohammed Ali, Nawab of the Carnatic, they carried on the war against the French with such spirit, that they eventually robbed them of all their settlements, and added them to the presidency of Madras, 1755. In the same year, Ram Raja, sovereign of Mahratta, obtained the aid of the Company's marine forces against his rebellious subject, Conaghi Angria, admiral of his fleet, who had some years before seized on the fortress of Severndroog, declared himself independent of Mahratta, and subdued 120 miles of sea-coast. All this was allowed by Ram Raja, on the agreement to pay tribute; but when the Rajah's ambassadors went to demand it, the rebel slit their noses. Ram Raja did not even resent this atrocious conduct; but when Angria had indiscriminately exercised his piracies upon ships of all nations, and the East India Company found itself put to an annual cost of 50,000*l.* to keep a naval force in check, the Mahratta prince was glad to find the English ready to punish the rebel, and agreed to support them with an army and ships. Sir William James took the

command of the united fleets, and would have blockaded the harbour of Severndroog effectually, had the Mahratta sailors seconded his efforts; but the instant they saw the pirate's vessels in motion, they refused to work, and Sir William was compelled to sail back to a point where, on landing, he found Rama-gee-Punt, commander of the Mahratta army, besieging the three forts of Severndroog with a *single gun* (a four pounder) at *two miles* distance; the gallant assailants not even then thinking themselves secure from the balls of the batteries, without digging pits, in which they were covered up to the chin from the enemy's fire. Sir William, satisfied that Angria, if successful, would wreak his vengeance on the English, instantly resolved to exceed his instructions; and on the next morning, April 2d, bombarded the fortress from his own ship. Little impression was made, however, before noon; when a shell occasioned a magazine of powder to blow up. About 1000 of the garrison hereupon rushed forth, and were captured; but as the two other forts continued the contest, Sir William landed (under cover of his ship's fire) half his seamen, who ran up to the chief gate, and cutting down the sallyport with their axes, forced their way in. The garrison hereupon surrendered, and Sir William left the place in the hands of the rightful sovereign, Ram Raja. A tower on Shooter's-hill in Kent, erected by Sir William's widow, still exists to commemorate the heroic achievement. At the same time in Bengal, the English having offended Seraj-ad-Dowla, who had succeeded his uncle, Aliverdi Khan, as subahdar, that prince marched to Calcutta, took the fort, and destroyed the effects of the factory, 1756. Many of the English escaped in boats and ships down the river, but many were taken; of these 146 were confined for the night in a very small warerroom in the fort; and the heat and want of air produced such fatal effects, that in the morning

only 23 were taken out alive. (*See Black Hole.*) As soon as the news of the taking of Fort-William reached Madras, troops were sent to Bengal under the celebrated colonel Clive, who had quitted the commissariat for a military life; Calcutta was recovered; and an army, commanded by the subahdar, was defeated and driven from the presidency. This success encouraged a native party, hostile to the Nawab, to plot his deposal; and, in concert with them, colonel Clive marched to Plassey, where Seraj met him, and was again signally defeated. On the termination of the action, which established the British power in India, Mir Jaffier was made subahdar of Bengal, on which occasion he bestowed on his deliverer, Clive, lands producing 30,000*l.* a year; and Seraj, flying from the field, was killed at Rajmahal. Colonel Clive returned to England three months after this victory; and Mir Jaffier, being eventually unable to satisfy the demands of the English, was deposed, and his son-in-law, Kasim Ali Khan, elevated in his room, 1760.

SARDINIA UNDER CHARLES EMANUEL III.—Charles Emanuel succeeded on the abdication of his father, Victor Emanuel II., 1730, and, contrary to the usual spirit of his house, embraced the projects of France and Spain to humble the Austrians. After the victory of Guastalla, he obtained some territories in the Milanese. The natural attachment of the Savoyards to the empire at length prevailed in the breast of Charles; and accordingly, in 1742, he joined Maria Theresa against his two former allies; in which war, though often unsuccessful, he always defended himself well against superior numbers. This prince was mild and economical in his administration: abuses were corrected, salutary forms were introduced, vice and luxury checked, and a new code of laws, more humane, was established. He died, aged 72, 1773.

IRELAND UNDER GEORGE II.—In

1739 an event occurred on the continent which singularly influenced the affairs of Ireland. A murrain broke out among the horned cattle in Holstein, whence it spread through Germany, Holland, and England, and raged with great violence for a number of years. The mitigation of the penal laws against the papists about this time, encouraged the natives of the south of Ireland to turn their thoughts towards agriculture; and the poor began to enjoy the necessities of life in a comfortable manner. A foreign demand for beef and mutton, however, having become very great, by reason of the cattle-distemper just mentioned, ground appropriated to grazing became more valuable than that employed in tillage; and the cotters were every where driven from their little possessions, which the landlords let to monopolizers who could afford a higher rent. Whole baronies were now laid open to pasturage, while the former inhabitants were driven desperate by want of subsistence. Numbers of them fled to the large cities, or emigrated to foreign countries; while those who remained, took small spots of land, about an acre each, at an exorbitant price, and endeavoured to procure the means of protracting a miserable existence. In such a situation, it is scarcely a matter of wonder that illegal methods should be pursued, in expectation of redress. The people, covered with white shirts, assembled in parties at night, turned up the ground, destroyed bullocks, levelled the inclosures of the commons, and committed other acts of violence. These unavailing efforts were construed into a plot against the government, numbers of the rioters were apprehended in Limerick, Cork, and Tipperary, and some of them executed. Judge Aston, however, who was sent over to try them, acted with an humanity which did him the highest honour. A most extraordinary and affecting evidence of this was,

that on his return from Dublin, for above ten miles from Clonmel, both sides of the road were lined with men, women, and children, who, as he passed along, kneeled down, and implored the blessing of heaven upon him, as their guardian and protector. Lord Chesterfield became lieutenant 1745; and notwithstanding his brief sway, his moderation and justice greatly tended to pacify the people. As the apprehensions of government were then very considerable on account of the rebellion which raged in Scotland, his lordship was advised to augment the military force of Ireland by 4000 men. Instead of this, he sent four battalions to the duke of Cumberland, and encouraged the volunteer associations, which formed in different parts for the defence of the country. But the most remarkable part of his administration was, the humanity with which he treated the Roman Catholics. Before his arrival, the Romish chapels in Dublin had been shut up; their priests had been commanded by proclamation to leave the kingdom; and such as disobeyed, had been subjected to imprisonment and other penalties. Lord Chesterfield, convinced that the affections are alone to be engaged by gentle usage, permitted them to exercise their religion without disturbance. The accusations brought against them of forming plots against the government, were disregarded; and so much was his moderation in this respect applauded by all parties, that, during the whole time of his administration, the national tranquillity was never once interrupted. On his leaving the island, his bust was placed, at the public expense, in the castle of Dublin. The earl of Harrington had no sooner succeeded him, 1746, than an attempt was made by the 'patriot,' Mr. Charles Lucas, to abrogate the law of Charles II., which took the power of choosing the city magistrates from the Irish commons, and vested it in the aldermen; who, being subject to

the privy-council, thus gave the right of election to the crown. Government in vain tried to crush the patriot: but he was elected into parliament, expelled, re-elected, and died amid the lamentations of the people, by whom he was designated 'the incorruptible Lucas.' A contest took place in the Irish parliament 1753, in consequence of the king's announcing, through his lieutenant the duke of Dorset, that he wished a surplus sum in the treasury to be applied to the reduction of the national debt. The commons affirmed that the right of disposal lay in themselves; but the king ended the dispute by withdrawing the sum in question from the exchequer. In the beginning of 1760 the invasion of Thurot, as noticed in the history, took place; and all fears respecting it were no sooner at an end, than the party in white shirts, now calling themselves *White Boys*, infested the south of Ireland, and gave cause to suppose, from their threats and depredations, that they were in league with some foreign power. Though many examples were made of them, the notion of a rebellion was still kept up; and, without the smallest foundation, gentlemen of the first rank were publicly charged with being concerned in it, insomuch that some of them were obliged to produce bail, in order to protect their property from confiscation.

SCOTLAND UNDER GEORGE II.—The administration was continued in Argyle's hands when George II. succeeded, 1727; and nothing of moment occurred in Scotland until the Porteous Riot, 1736, elsewhere related, and which in its consequences is most memorable. The failure of every attempt to discover the main actors in that tragedy occasioned the parliament (now in England) to inflict on provost Wilson and the city of Edinburgh the utmost severity of punishment; a bill of pains and penalties was brought in, and though strongly opposed by the Scottish

members, passed into a law. In order to give full publicity to the act, the Scottish clergy were compelled to read it from their pulpits, all who refused to comply being threatened with the loss of their gown; and as it seemed that the queen's threat to 'make Scotland a hunting-field,' was about to be put in execution (so singularly was every family of respectability suspected of having been a party to the Porteous affair, or, in other words, to the contempt of the English government which it implied), the people's minds were at length generally alienated from the house of Hanover, and a train was laid, which exploded in the young Pretender's rebellion. It was in 1743 that Louis XV., jealous of the British power, invited prince Charles, eldest son of the Pretender, prince James, to Paris. Being a high-spirited youth, who delighted to consider himself as the rightful heir of the first throne in Europe, and who longed for an opportunity to assert his claims at the risk of every personal danger, he joyfully accepted the invitation; and, in the disguise of a Spanish courier, he hastened with eager alacrity from Rome to Paris. Louis not only received him with the most flattering distinction, but also stipulated to afford him, in every state of his fortunes, an asylum in France; and he speedily prepared a fleet and army for the invasion of Britain. In January, 1744, 7000 troops embarked, and the squadron sailed; the court of France entertained high expectations of success; and the Jacobites exulted, and prepared to receive Charles with open arms, as their sovereign and deliverer. But all these hopes were blasted by the appearance of the British fleet under sir John Norris, who pursued the French squadron, and forced it to return into port. In consequence of this ill-success, the French seemed to relinquish every design of invading Britain; the Scottish Jacobites were distressed and enraged; and Charles lingered

at Paris in extreme anxiety and dissatisfaction, still soliciting from the French ministry the troops and fleets which they had promised, and being still amused and tantalized by their specious delays. Meanwhile, encouraged by the Jacobites, who induced him to believe that his personal presence in the Highlands would be sufficient to draw round him a powerful and valiant host, Charles determined to embark; and the French ministers, pleased to accomplish at a small expense their design of compelling George II. to withdraw his forces from the continent, gladly heard of the design, and promised to afford every requisite supply, in the most liberal abundance, to the prince.

Charles accordingly, about the middle of June, 1745, set sail in a small frigate, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardin, sir John Macdonald, and a few others; and, after escaping various perils, landed in the shire of Inverness, where he was joined by the Camerons of Lochiel, and other men of high honour. On erecting his standard at Glensinnan, August 19, he saw himself at the head of 1200 men; and being victorious in some encounters which ensued with the royal troops, the Camerons, the Macdonalds, the Macleans, and the Mackenzies rose, and joined his cause. Though sir John Cope, the British commander, advanced upon this into the Highlands, Charles was welcomed into Perth by the duke of Perth, and lords Strathallan, Nairn, and George Murray; who accompanied him thence across the Forth at Stirling to Edinburgh, which was at once summoned to surrender. During the negotiation, one of the city-gates being opened for the admission of a coach, Cameron of Lochiel rushed into the place with a party of his men, and secured it without opposition; and on the next morning Charles, at the head of his army, entered, and having taken possession of Holyrood palace, caused his father to be proclaimed king, and himself regent of Great

Britain. On hearing of this event, the lords of the regency in London set a price of 30,000*l.* on prince Charles's head; king George hastened home from the continent to defend his British dominions; 6000 Dutch troops were demanded, agreeably to treaty; the English militia were arrayed; several British regiments were recalled from Flanders; and the greater part of the English nobility and gentry offered their services to the government. As soon as sir John Cope found that the Jacobites had made their way down to the richest counties in Scotland, he embarked his army at Aberdeen, and after a short passage arrived at Dunbar on the 17th of September, 1745; where, being joined by two regiments of dragoons, he began his march towards Edinburgh. Charles immediately drew out his forces to give him battle, and the armies met on Traut-muir, near Preston-pans; Cope having 5000, and the Jacobites 2400 men. The Jacobites commenced the fight by discharging their muskets, and then drawing their broadswords, and rushing upon the enemy with the utmost impetuosity. A mode of charge so totally unknown to and unexpected by the British soldiers, speedily broke and routed them. On this occasion, colonel Gardiner, though abandoned by the regiment of dragoons which he commanded, alighted from his horse, put himself at the head of some infantry who still kept the field, and bravely fought, until he fell covered with wounds in sight of his own threshold. The king's troops lost 500 men; and their colours, artillery, tents, baggage, and military chests were taken. The Jacobites had only 50 killed; and Charles, bearing his success with extreme moderation, prohibited all rejoicings, treated the wounded prisoners with humanity, and liberated all the officers on their parole. In consequence of this victory, bands of Highlanders, who had not yet taken part in the rebellion, hastened down to follow the Pretender's fortunes;

and the spoils of Cope's army enabled him to arm and pay them. He was joined also by the lords Balmerino, Ogilvy, Pittligo, and Kilmarnock; and powerful support was expected from the clan of the Frasers, with old lord Lovat at their head. Charles, during his residence in Edinburgh, raised a regiment from amongst the inhabitants, and received additional supplies from France. Taxes were imposed; the merchandise in the king's warehouses at Leith was seized for his use; and a large contribution was exacted from the city of Glasgow. The clergy in the mean time were permitted to exercise their functions; and some of them prayed in public for king George, without suffering the least punishment or molestation. Mr. Macvicar of the West Kirk parish was particularly bold: being solicited by some of the Highlanders to pray for their prince, he promised to comply, but somewhat profanely evaded his promise by words to this effect: 'And as for the young prince, who is come hither in quest of an earthly crown, grant, O Lord, that he may speedily receive a crown of glory.'

It was on the 6th of November that Charles, on foot, in the Highland costume, began his march for England, at the head of 6000 men. He entered at the western border, and took the town and castle of Carlisle after a siege of three days; and he then pursued his march through Penrith, Lancaster, and Preston, as far as Manchester, where his arrival was celebrated by illuminations, and where 200 men under colonel Townley joined his standard. In spite of every opposition, he continued to advance till he reached Derby, within 100 miles of London, which was filled with confusion and alarm at the intelligence. Numbers in the metropolis prepared to join the Jacobite cause; and it was generally supposed that, should the prince present himself before the place, he might at once become master of it. His own ardent spirit still burned to press on

thither, to earn a crown, or nobly fall; but he had not lately received any supplies, and the Highlanders were in want of every thing; the length of the march, and the toil they had undergone, began to exhaust their ardour; the French had not landed, as was expected; few of the English had joined them; and three royal armies were preparing to surround them. For these reasons a majority insisted that they must provide for their safety by a speedy retreat. Accordingly, the Jacobites commenced their return, closely pursued by the cavalry of the duke of Cumberland and general Wade; with whom they had frequent skirmishes. Notwithstanding the inclemency of the season, the want of every necessary, and the difficulty of local circumstances, they retreated in good order, and carried with them all their artillery. With a view to retard the pursuit of the duke of Cumberland, they left a garrison in the castle of Carlisle, which surrendered after a siege of nine days; meanwhile they reached Scotland in safety, having thus accomplished one of the most surprising retreats, during which their moderation and orderly conduct were truly admirable. No violence was offered by the prince's troops; no outrage committed; and they were effectually restrained from plunder. Notwithstanding the excessive cold, the hunger, and the fatigue to which they had been exposed, they left behind no sick, lost very few stragglers, and retreated with deliberation, and in the face of the enemy. Proceeding by Dumfries to Glasgow, they made an unsuccessful attack on Stirling Castle, which was bravely defended by general Blakeney; sent parties across the Forth, and laid Fife under contribution; took possession of Dumblane and Downcastle; and fixed their head-quarters at Perth, securing the town of Dundee. Meanwhile the royalists were making every exertion to defend themselves. The earl of Sutherland, lord Reay, sir Alexander Macdonald, the chief-

tain of the Macleods, lord-president Forbes, the Grants, and the Munroes all came zealously forward for the support of 'the revolution settlement.' The earl of London, with a regiment of Highlanders, took possession of Inverness; the city of Glasgow raised a regiment of volunteers under the earl of Home; and general Hawley advanced to raise the siege of Stirling. Finding on the 17th of January, 1746, that the Jacobites occupied a rising ground near Falkirk, Hawley detached his cavalry to drive them from their post, while he formed his infantry in order of battle; but the steady, alert, and well-directed fire of the Highlanders, and the fearless impetuosity with which they rushed forward, threw their assailants into such disorder, that, recoiling upon their own infantry, they broke the forming ranks. Hawley with difficulty rallied his dragoons, and led them back to the charge; but Charles instantly coming up at the head of fresh troops, again repulsed his opponent's cavalry, the infantry took the alarm, and the rout of the royalists became general. About 300 of the king's army fell, among whom were sir Robert Murray, and other officers of distinction; but the royalists had time to set fire to their tents, though obliged to abandon their baggage and artillery. The news of this victory renewed the alarm in London; the duke of Cumberland came down to assume the command; and on advancing to raise the siege of Stirling, he had the satisfaction to see prince Charles quit the place, begin his retreat to the northern districts, and enter into winter quarters. The war could not now be renewed until the spring; and in April, 1746, the duke impatiently renewed his march in search of the Jacobite force, which had taken up a position on Cullodden-muir. On the 16th of April prince Charles received intelligence that his enemies were in the neighbourhood of his encampment; and in less than half an hour

after the first onset, as elsewhere shown, the Jacobites were totally defeated, and the field covered with the slain. The road as far as Inverness was strown with dead bodies; and numbers who from motives of curiosity had come to see the battle, were cruelly sacrificed to the undistinguishing vengeance of the victors. The prince, with lord Elcho and a few other attendants, retired in safety on horseback, and escaped all pursuit; but the earl of Kilmarnock and lord Balmerino were made prisoners. The duke of Cumberland at once took possession of Inverness; and he began that cold-blooded career of slaughter and devastation, which has for ever branded his name, by executing 36 of his prisoners as deserters from the king's service. So alert were the duke's messengers of vengeance, that in a few days there was neither house, cottage, man, nor beast to be seen in the compass of fifty miles: all was ruin, silence, and desolation. For the space of five months, Charles was surrounded by armed troops, that chased him from hill to dale, from rock to cavern, and from shore to shore. Sometimes he lurked in caves and cottages, without attendants, or any other support but that which the poorest peasant could supply. Sometimes he was rowed in fishing-boats from isle to isle, among the Hebrides, and often in sight of his pursuers. For some days he appeared in female attire, and even passed through the midst of his enemies unknown. Learning that his disguise was discovered, he then assumed the habit of a mountaineer, and wandered about among the woods and heaths, with a matted beard, and squalid looks, exposed to hunger, thirst, and weariness, which greatly impaired his constitution. During this period he was obliged to trust his life to the fidelity of above fifty individuals, who ministered to his necessities with unremitting zeal; and although they knew that a price of

30,000*l.* was set upon his head, not one of them was found to betray him. At length, on the 20th of September, he embarked on board a privateer, accompanied by Cameron of Lochiel, and a few other exiles; and after passing through a British squadron in a fog, arrived in safety at Roseau in France. (*See Escape of Prince Charles Edward.*)

From London to the northern extremity of the Highlands, the jails were now filled with prisoners. All who had been formerly in the service of king George, were put to death as traitors and deserters; the earl of Kilmarnock, lords Lovat and Balmerino, and the earl of Derwentwater were executed; an act passed to annex the forfeited estates of all Jacobites to the crown; those hereditary jurisdictions which kept up clanship amongst the Highlanders were purchased by the government from the nobles and gentry; and the Highlands being opened up by new roads, and the inhabitants forced to lay aside their peculiar dress, every point of difference between Scots and English that was capable of removal was obliterated, and the History of Scotland brought terrifically to a close.

JAPAN UNDER TSINAJOSIKO.—Although the Dutch nation has an advantage over all other European states, in relation to commerce with Japan, the members of the Dutch factory at Nagasaki have attempted no regular history of the unsocial race amongst whom they have been permitted to sojourn, and have simply furnished the world with a dry list of Japanese spiritual and temporal sovereigns. TSINAJOSIKO, son of Jietznako I., whom he succeeded 1680, (a prince much inclined to be acquainted with European manners, and especially with the cause of those wars which occupied the English and continental powers during the beginning of the 18th century, and which were destined, so to speak, to give to the British a firm footing in the East, and so make them

comparatively neighbours of the Japanese,) was hereditary *Ziooon*, or temporal and usurping ruler of Japan, when George II. began his rule. He had already been 47 years on the Japanese throne, had effected many important reforms in the government and habits of his country, and had nearly succeeded, 1720, in rendering the high dignity of *Ziooon* independent of the oligarchy of superintendent lords. *Go-xin-sen* II., who had succeeded, 1687, was at the same juncture *Mikado*, or spiritual and rightful emperor of Japan.

The following gleanings from modern Dutch writers will serve as an appendix to the information given concerning the Japanese in vol. i. 593, and may be regarded as, with that notice, including all that is known up to this time, by Europeans, of so singular a people. The mythic portion of the history of Japan, extending nearly from the dispersion of Babel to 660 a. c., makes the empire the first portion of creation. From primeval chaos arose a self-created god, *Ameno-minaka-nusimokami*, throned in the highest heaven; next arose two creator-gods, who fashioned the universe out of chaos, all but the earth; these were succeeded by seven gods in their order, the last of whom, in due time, dipped his spear into the ocean, and the drops which trickled therefrom, as he withdrew it, congealed, and formed the isle *Kiusiu*, which is part of Japan. The daughter of this beneficent deity was his successor, by name *Ten-sio-dai-zin*; she reigned 250,000 years, *Kiusiu* being her seat of government; and from her descended, in a direct line, the first mortal ruler, the demi-god *Zin-muten-wú* (divine conqueror), the first *Mikado*, and the ancestor of the *Mikado* of the present day. The religion of Japan is now a mixture of Buddhism and *Sintú*, the former being (contrary to the appointment of *Buddhà*) accompanied by the worship of idols. The original paganism of Japan, the *Sintú*, which

gives the above origin of the universe and earth, derives its name from the Chinese corruption or translation of *Kami-no-mitsi*, 'the way of the kami' or gods. The authentic history of Japan commences in the year 660 a. c., when *Manasseh* was king of Judah, and *Tullus Hostilius* of Rome; though there is no question that it had for centuries existed previously, as an independent nation. It has probably quite as much claim to be a primeval state, founded soon after the first dispersion, as China; and that its people have ever been a distinct race from the Chinese, is evinced by its polysyllabic language, the tongue of the former being monosyllabic. Both use symbols, like the early Egyptians, in place of letter-composed words; that is, what we should call the letters of words are not unmeaning sounds, but ideographic characters, words themselves, or rather the ideas which those words signify. Like the Chinese, the Japanese write in columns from the top to the bottom of the paper, and begin at the right side, as did the Hebrews. The first mortal ruler of *Dai-Nippon*, as the Japanese call their country (*dai*, great, *nitru*, sun, *pon* or *fon*, origin; whence the Chinese corruption to *Jihpún*, pronounced *Yupún*—the European *Japan*), was the beforementioned *Zinmutenwú*; who, coming from a western country, subdued the people of 3850 islands (including many uninhabitable rocks), and built himself a *dairi* (temple-palace of the sun), and established his sovereignty of the *Mikados*, or 'sons of heaven,' 660 a. c. For many centuries his descendants ruled by 'right divine' in *Dai Nippon*; but the frequent early abdication of *Mikados*, to avoid the restraints of a life devoted to religious ceremony, occasioned at last the assumption of the chief secular power by *Yoritomo*, a chief who had been declared regent during the minority of an abdicator's grandson, and who announced himself he-

reditary *Ziagoon* or visir of the Mikado. The 'son of heaven' was henceforth only a spiritual character, with a power of veto, however, in all state ordinances; but that power was eventually abrogated by Hideyosi, a man of low birth, who had risen to military rank in the service of the prince of Owari. That prince, himself a descendant of Yoritomo, contending with another noble of that race for the *ziagoonship*, a civil war ensued; and both rivals being assassinated, Hideyosi seized the sovereign power, and was acknowledged *Ziagoon*, by the title of Tayko-sama, 'the lord Tayko,' 1560. But previously to this latter event, the Monguls, under Kublai Khan (as related in vol. i., p. 593), while attempting the conquest of 'the Central Empire,' as China was then styled, sent ambassadors to Dai Nippon, calling on both Mikado and *Ziagoon* to submit to his power; but all his threats being treated with contempt, and the members of two embassies in 1276 and 1279 being beheaded by the Japanese to a man, the Mongul, when he had achieved the conquest of China, 1280, prepared to take vengeance on the contumacy of the island-nation. The vast armament, however, which he sent for the purpose, was wholly destroyed by shipwreck, the violent winds driving the invading vessels upon the countless rocks of the dangerous Japan seas, as has been already related. The usurper Tayko-sama, before mentioned, was the first to reduce the Mikado to the mere shadow of a sovereign: he subdued Corea, which had revolted from Dai Nippon, and was preparing to invade China, when death seized him, 1598. As his son, Hideyori, was a child of six years only, the descendants of Yoritomo now attempted the recovery of their lost dignity; and upon the issue of this state of things depended whether Japan should become a Christian state. The Portuguese Jesuits, who were now highly influential, supported the cause of Hideyori, whose father had

secretly professed the true faith; but that young *Ziagoon* was at length driven out by Teyeyas, his own guardian, who had acted as his regent, and given him his granddaughter in marriage. Hideyori hereon fled to Satzuma, and laid the foundation of a minor royal house, from which the *ziagoons* still take their wives. The usurper having deprived the Mikado of the little power left him by Tayko-sama, reducing the absolute autocrat to that complete dependance which is now the state of the 'son of heaven,' finally proceeded to persecute his rival's supporters, the native Christians and foreign missionaries; when a terrible slaughter of both occurred. The Portuguese sent an army to remonstrate upon the matter; but its members, all but two, who were sent home to tell the tale, were instantly beheaded by the *Ziagoon's* order, as the Mongul envoys had been. The posterity of Teyeyas still held the *ziagoonship*; and it is affirmed that, from the period of his thorough extirpation of Christianity, Dai Nippon has enjoyed profound peace, internal as well as external.

The Mikado, or real emperor of Japan, is now simply a spiritual character. He every day passes a certain number of hours upon his throne immoveable; lest, by turning his head, he should bring down ruin upon that part of the empire towards or from which he should look. He never dies, but *vanishes*; when his son succeeds to his earthly honours. The *Ziagoon*, who has usurped the temporal power of the Mikado, undertakes to support him with every thing needful to his secluded state, in the Dairi at Miyako, wherein he is a complete prisoner. But both Mikado and *Ziagoon* are alike the puppets of a sort of visir, called 'governor of the empire,' whose office is hereditary, and who, as head of a council of thirteen *grandees*, is powerful enough to keep the two emperors confined to their palace-grounds at all times. This personage will doubtless, ere long, erect

his power openly, and shut up the Ziogoon at Yedo, as that functionary originally did the Mikado at Miyako : such is probably only the gradual development and progress of the existing system. Nevertheless the Japanese, being a law to themselves—*habit* being their inexorable master—have no need of a tyrant.

The Dutch, consisting of the *Oppehoofd*, or head, or president of the factory, called by the Japanese *Holanda*, or *Horanda* Capitan, and ten assistants, including a physician and a secretary, are confined to a made island, called *Dezima*, raised in the sea, close to Nagasaki ; to which town it is connected by a bridge. The island is only 600 feet long by 240 feet, and is built in the shape of the emperor's fan ; and none of the factory can leave it, night or day, without an order from the Nagasaki governor. But though the government of Japan is so jealous of foreigners, the people are quite the reverse, and will run any risk, men or women, to get acquainted with the Dutch visitors. Even the emperors and governors, by what is called *nayboen* (meaning a system of winking at what is done), allow many forbidden privileges to the factory. The same *opperhoofd* usually resides some years at *Dezima*, with the permission of having an audience of the Ziogoon at Yedo once in four years. On this occasion he is obliged to crawl on his hands and knees into the presence of the sovereign, not daring to look up or around him when in his splendid presence-chamber ; and, in like manner, he is made to crawl out. Indeed the restraints generally put upon the Dutch (and only visitors to Japan save the Chinese) are such as would prevent most other nations from caring about Japan traffic. The very cargoes of their ships are seized and sold by the Japanese ; their money and swords are taken away ; and their vessels are laden again with what the Japanese, not what themselves, select. The Portuguese,

when formerly allowed to traffic, had an island in the same way constructed for them.

Suicide, by ripping up the abdomen, is the common way by which the higher Japanese avoid the loss of honour which a public trial would occasion. The spy-system is that upon which every thing hinges. There are eight classes or castes : nobles, priests, military (those three being allowed the use of two swords, and petticoat trousers), medical, merchants (one sword), shopkeepers (including artisans), peasants, day-labourers. The tanners, and all trading in leather, are unclassified, and regarded, like the *Parias* in India, as profaning a classed person by their presence and even look. The lands are wholly held of the Ziogoon for services, in the feudal manner ; the nobles providing soldiery for the crown, and the vassals for their liege-lords. One singular custom of the Japanese is, that men and women, soldiers, sailors, emperors, governors, and all classes of respectability, constantly use a *fan*.

The only occasion on which the English may be said to have come in collision with the Japanese, was in the affair of the *Phaëton*, if we except the fruitless attempt of Sir Stamford Raffles, when Java had fallen to our nation, 1813, to make the *opperhoofd* at *Dezima* consider himself the servant of the British governor of the colony whence he emanated. In the year 1818, Captain Pellew of the *Phaëton*, while cruising in the Indian seas, projected the capture of the annual Dutch vessels trading with Japan ; and conceiving he had missed them, prosecuted his search even into the bay of Nagasaki. On his making the coast, the report of a strange vessel in sight was brought to Nagasaki, and the usual deputation was sent forth. The boat bearing two members of the Dutch factory, was in advance of that with the Japanese commissioners, and, as the strange ship displayed Dutch colours, advanced joyfully to meet her shallop ;

—when, as soon as they were in reach of each other, the Dutch officials were grappled, dragged forcibly into the ship's boat, and carried on board the Phaëton. The Japanese police-officers and interpreter, in utter dismay at so unexpected, so incomprehensible a catastrophe, rowed back to relate the misadventure of their foreign colleagues. The governor of Nagasaki, to whom the loss of two of the strangers in his charge was matter of life and death, ordered the *gobanyosis* to bring back the captured Dutchmen, or not to return alive; and then sent to ask the *opperhoofd*, Doeff, what could be the meaning of the occurrence? Doeff replied, 'he conceived the ship to be an English man-of-war; and that the Dutchmen, being civilians, might be recovered by negotiation.' But even whilst these messages were passing, the Phaëton made her way unpiloted into the harbour; and the Japanese, confounded at an exploit altogether unprecedented, raised a cry that she was bearing down upon *Dezima*. The governor, who now feared to lose his whole factory, ordered all the Dutchmen, with their most valuable effects, to the government-house, there at least to be as safe as himself. They found him in a tremendous rage, and he greeted Doeff with the words: 'Be you easy, *opperhoofd*; I will have your Dutchmen back for you.' Soon afterwards came a note from one of the captives, stating that the ship was English, and that Captain Pellew requested provisions and water. With this demand the governor declared he would never comply; and he busily set about preparations for destroying the strange vessel. His first measure was to summon the troops from the nearest post (one of the Prince of Fizen's), where 1000 men were bound to be constantly on duty. Only 70 were found there; the commandant himself being among the missing. This neglect of orders by others sealed the governor's own fate; but he did not intermit his efforts to regain the Dutchmen, and his scheme for suc-

ceeding by negotiation was truly Japanese. The chief secretary waited upon Doeff, informing him that he had received orders to fetch back the captives; and to the question, 'How?' replied, 'Even as the ship has seized the Dutchmen—*treacherously*. I shall go on board, quite alone, and with the strongest proofs of friendship. I am then to ask to speak to the captain, to request the restoration of the Dutchmen; and in case of a refusal, to stab him first, and then myself.' Doeff's representations to both the secretary and governor, that such an act must infallibly cause the death of the captives by the hands of the enraged crew, could with difficulty induce them to abandon this wildly vindictive project. One of the Dutch captives was now sent on shore on parole, to fetch the provisions asked for. He reported that he and his comrade had been strictly interrogated as to the annual Dutch ships, and that the English captain threatened, should he detect any attempt at deception respecting them, to put both captives to death, and burn every vessel in the harbour, Japanese and Chinese. The governor was most unwilling to let the envoy return to captivity; but was at length convinced of the necessity of suffering him to keep his word, for the sake of the other. He then gave him provisions and water to take on board, but in very small quantities, hoping thus to detain the ship until he should be ready for hostilities. Captain Pellew had by this time satisfied himself that his intended prizes were not in Nagasaki bay; and in consequence, upon receiving this scanty supply, he sent both Dutchmen on shore. Their release was to the two police-officers, who were still rowing despondingly round the Phaëton, meditating upon the impossibility of executing their commission, a respite from certain death. Meanwhile the governor was collecting troops to attack the English frigate; but his operations proceeded slowly, and other subsidiary measures were suggested. The prince of Omura,

who came to Nagasaki with his troops before dawn, advised burning her by means of fifty small boats filled with combustibles; the Dutch president preventing her escape, by sinking vessels laden with stones in the difficult passage out of the harbour. But whilst all these plans were under consideration, whilst troops were assembling as fast as possible, and commissioners rowing from shore to gain time by proposals to negotiate respecting commerce, the Englishman, who had no further object in remaining, sailed out of the harbour as he had sailed in, unpiloted; leaving the Japanese more confounded than before. This, however, was not all: the governor of Nagasaki, who was bound to prevent the escape of the intruder, instantly assembled his household, and in their presence ripped himself up; and the commander of the deficient posts followed his example; thus saving their kindred from inevitable dishonour—that of a public execution.

WALACHIA CONSTITUTED AN INDEPENDENT CHRISTIAN PRINCIPALITY.—In 1755 the Czarina Elizabeth wrested this province of the ancient Byzantine empire from the sultan Osman II. It had constantly been inhabited by

Christians of the Greek church, notwithstanding its fall to Germany soon after the dissolution of the Eastern empire, 1453; but the Western emperor had been compelled, after the fatal battle of Crotzka, to cede it, at the treaty of Belgrade, 1739, to the Turkish power, the latter at the same time guaranteeing the free exercise of their religion to the people. Walachia is a remarkably fertile province, 225 miles long, and 125 broad; and it is bounded on the east and south by the river Danube, on the north by Moldavia (a province which fell with it to the czarina) and Transylvania, and on the west entirely by Transylvania. Its horses, sheep, and cattle are abundant and excellent; there is no district richer in corn, wine, oil, and fruits, than Walachia; and its air is proverbially soft and salubrious. Since the fall of Napoleon, the princes of Walachia have ranked as free sovereigns, though their state is a great deal under Russian influence or 'protection.' The throne is in the possession of the Greek house of Ghika; and the present ruler, PRINCE ALEXANDER GHICA, was born at Bucharest, the capital, 1795, and succeeded his father October 14, 1834.

EMINENT PERSONS.

FREDERICK LEWIS, PRINCE OF WALES, was eldest son of George II., and was born 1706. It has already been mentioned that he was much alienated from his royal father, though a favourite with the people. He married Augusta, daughter of the duke of Saxe-Gotha, by whom he had nine children; the most distinguished of whom were George III.; Caroline-Matilda, the unhappy queen of Christian IV. of Denmark; and Augusta, the consort of Charles William Ferdinand, duke of Brunswick, who fell at Jena, and whose son, the duke of Brunswick-Oels, fell at Waterloo. Prince Frederick, in consequence of a cold caught in his garden at Kew, was seized with a pleuretic disorder, March 18th, 1751, and, after a short

illness, expired on the 20th, to the unspeakable affliction of his royal consort, and the unfeigned sorrow of all who wished well to their country. The prince, who died in the 46th year of his age, was possessed of every amiable quality which could engage the affection of the people. A tender and obliging husband, a fond parent, a kind master, liberal, generous, candid, and humane; a munificent patron of the arts, an unwearied friend to merit: well disposed to assert the wholesome rights of mankind in general, and warmly attached to the interests of Great Britain—the nation could not but be afflicted at seeing a prince of such expectations ravished from their hopes; and their grief was the better founded, as the king had

and he resumed his former post of first lord of the treasury and premier, 1720. The history of his subsequent administration, through the remainder of the first George's reign to the 16th year of George II., 1742, is that of England itself; and in reference to it it may be observed, that as the steady supporter of Hanoverian interests, he was the main cause of the discomfiture of all Jacobite schemes, a maintainer of peace at all hazards, a promoter of trade, and an able financier—as his extension of excise evinces. A pursuit of useful rather than of splendid objects, joined to a sincere zeal for the protestant succession, formed the leading principles of his government; and the means which he employed were prudence, vigilance, and a degree of corruption, certainly not greater than had been practised by many of his predecessors, although more general and systematic. His ministry was finally shaken by the unpopularity of his exertions to maintain peace with Spain in 1739; from which time the opposition to him gained ground, until in 1742 he resigned, and was created earl of Orford. A parliamentary inquiry into his conduct was subsequently instituted; but after repeated fruitless attacks, all proceedings against him were dropped. His health soon after began to decline, owing to repeated attacks of the stone; which at length carried him off, at the age of 70, 1746. In private life, Walpole was noted for frankness of manners, and a species of jovial goodnature; but his mirth was coarse, and his moral conduct assumed much of the easy licence of rank and fashion. Letters he neither loved nor patronized, except the productions of subaltern writers in his praise or defence, whom he rewarded liberally; so that he was little deserving of the encomiums of Pope's elegant muse. His ultimate retirement from office was occasioned by the threat of impeachment by Mr. Sandys, 1742. On that occasion, when Mr. Sandys stated in the com-

mons that he had a charge to make, Sir Robert expressed his surprise; but in a few moments he politely thanked him for his notice, and said he simply desired fair play. 'As I am not conscious,' observed he, 'of any crime, I doubt not of being able to make a sufficient defence.' He then misquoted the well-known line of Horace, 'Nil conscire sibi, nulla pallescere culpa,' by using *nulli* and *culpa*; and upon being told he was wrong by Mr. Pulteney, was indiscreet enough to lay a wager on the subject.

GEORGE ANSON (1697—1762) was of an ancient family, and born at his father's seat near Colwick, Staffordshire. He went early into the navy, was made a post-captain at 26, and remained several years on the South Carolina station, in command of the Scarborough man-of-war. A district of that province, where he built the town of Anson-burgh, is still called Anson county. On the breaking out of the Spanish war, 1739, he had command of the fleet destined to attack the Spanish settlements in the Pacific ocean; and this gave rise to the memorable expedition, so well described in the very popular book called 'Anson's Voyage.' He set sail Sept. 18, 1740, with a squadron of 5 men-of-war, a sloop, and two victuallers, all very wretchedly fitted out, as the sequel proved, for the nature of the service; and doubled Cape Horn in the midst of a series of storms and tempests that separated his whole fleet, only a small part of which ever again joined him. After refitting at Juan Fernandez, he took the rich town of Paita in Peru, and captured some valuable prizes, on board of which were passengers of high distinction. His treatment of these was so generous and polite, that, impressed as the parties in those countries had been, in conformity with Spanish policy, by accounts of the barbarity of English seamen, they expressed their respect and gratitude in the highest terms. He afterwards sailed with the Centurion and Gloucester to Mexico to intercept the an-

nual Acapulco ship, but was obliged to unite the crews, and abandon his second vessel; and so thinned and weakened were the seamen by the scurvy, that it was with difficulty they reached the pleasant but uninhabited island of Tinian, one of the Ladrões. Here, while the commodore and his officers and crew were on shore, the Centurion was blown out to sea; and so little prospect was entertained of her reaching the island again, that much labour was employed to lengthen a small vessel found on the shore. So calm and equable was the commodore's deportment in the difficulty, that he allowed no mark of emotion to escape him, until informed that the Centurion was in sight again. From Tinian he went to refit at Macao, and having there captured the Manila galleon, though greatly superior to his own ship, he sailed with his prize to Canton, sold it, and having circumnavigated the globe, and passed during a fog through a French fleet, arrived, laden with wealth, at Spithead, June 15, 1744. His riches were conveyed to London in 32 waggons, with music playing, and amidst the shouts of the rejoicing populace; and the booty was divided amongst those who had shared his glory and his toils. Some years after, his good fortune led him among a French fleet of 10 ships, which he took; and it was on this occasion that the French admiral naïvely said to him, in presenting his sword, and pointing to two of his ships, the *Invincible* and *Glory*, '*Monsieur, vous avez vaincu l'Invincible, et la Gloire vous suit.*' He was created a baron by George II., placed at the head of the admiralty, nominated vice-admiral of England on the death of Sir John Harris, and became the naval oracle of his country. He afterwards protected with a squadron the descent made in 1758 at Cherbourg and St. Maloes; but his exertions were too great for the languid state of his health; and the last office he performed was the conveying of Charlotte, the consort of

George III., to England. He died at his seat, Moor Park, Herts, aged 65, 1762; lamented as a man of such artless and guileless conduct, that it was jocosely said of him by one who observed how he was imposed upon by characters of whose company he was too fond, 'that he had been *round* the world, but certainly never *in* it.'

EDWARD HAWKE was son of a barrister, and having early entered the naval service, was promoted, 1747, to the command of a squadron, with which he totally defeated a French fleet, taking six large ships of the line. In 1759, being then vice-admiral of the white, he was sent in pursuit of the Brest fleet, which he came up with off Belleisle; when he gave the enemy a defeat not inferior to the first. These successes were rewarded with a pension of 2000*l*. In 1765 he was appointed vice-admiral of Great Britain, and first lord of the admiralty; and in 1776 created baron Hawke. He died 1781.

JAMES WOLFE (1726—1759), son of a military officer, was born at Westerham, Kent, and early entered the army. At the early age of 20 he attracted attention by his military skill; and during the whole of the German war was actively employed, and regarded as a rising soldier. When the first Mr. Pitt was premier, Wolfe was selected to command the important expedition against Quebec. Here he singly, and alone in opinion, formed that great, hazardous, but necessary plan of operation, which drew out the French to their defeat, and insured the conquest of Canada. Having surmounted all obstacles, he encountered the enemy on the heights of Abraham, where, in the moment of victory, he received a ball in the wrist, and another in the body, which rendered it necessary to bear him off to a small distance in the rear. There, roused from fainting, in the agonies of death, by the sound of 'They run!' he eagerly asked 'Who ran?' and on being told 'the French,' and that they were defeated, he ex-

claimed, 'Then I thank God, and die contented,' and expired, aged 38 (September 13, 1759). The general's scheme to get his cannon raised from his ship to the heights of Abraham (a most difficult work), is not yet forgotten at Quebec. To try the strength of the sailors, a large puncheon of rum was ordered to be raised by them to the summit of a precipitous hill, and there freely to be distributed amongst them; after which every man declared a cannon to be lighter than a puncheon of rum, and with incredible speed the huge pieces were hoisted aloft in rotation.

THE BYNGS.—GEORGE BYNG, born 1663, rose by merit in the navy, and in 1704, with the rank of rear-admiral of the red, contributed to the capture of Gibraltar. For his services at the battle of Malaga he was knighted, and in 1718 was sent commander-in-chief of the fleet in the Mediterranean, where he bravely protected the coasts of Italy against the Spaniards. On his return, George I. made him treasurer of the navy, rear-admiral of England, and a viscount; and in 1727 George II. made him first lord of the admiralty, which post he filled till his death, 1733. JOHN BYNG, his second son, of unfortunate memory, served in the glorious expeditions of his father, and was raised to the rank of admiral. His attempts to relieve Fort St. Philip in Minorca, when blockaded by a French fleet, proved abortive; and his hesitation in engaging the enemy, when a bold attack might perhaps have gained the victory, drew forth the clamours of the nation against him. On December 28th, 1757, his trial began before a court-martial, held on board the ship *St. George*, in the harbour of Portsmouth; to which place admiral Byng had been conveyed from Greenwich by a party of horse-guards, and been insulted by the populace in every town and village through which he had passed. The court having proceeded to examine the evidence for the crown and the prisoner, from day to day, in the course of a long sitting

agreed unanimously to 37 resolutions, implying their opinion, 'that the admiral, during the engagement between the British and French fleets on the twentieth day of May last, did not do his utmost endeavour to take, seize, and destroy the ships of the French king, which it was his duty to have engaged, and to assist such of his majesty's ships as were engaged, which it was his duty to have assisted; and that he did not exert his utmost power for the relief of St. Philip's castle.' They, therefore, unanimously resolved, that he fell under part of the twelfth article of an act of parliament passed in the 22d year of the present reign, for amending, explaining, and reducing into one act the laws relating to the government of his majesty's ships, vessels, and forces by sea; and as that article positively prescribed death, without any alternative left to the discretion of the court under any variation of circumstances, they unanimously adjudged the said admiral John Byng to be shot to death, at such time and on board of such ship as the lords commissioners of the admiralty should please to direct. But as it appeared, by the evidence of the officers who were near the admiral's person, that no backwardness was perceivable in him during the action, nor any mark of fear or confusion either in his countenance or behaviour, but that he delivered his orders coolly and distinctly, without seeming deficient in personal courage, and because from other circumstances they believed his misconduct did not arise either from cowardice or disaffection, they unanimously and earnestly recommended him as a proper object of mercy. The admiral himself behaved through the whole trial with the most cheerful composure, seemingly the effect of conscious innocence, upon which, perhaps, he too much relied. Even after he had heard the evidence examined against him, and finished his own defence, he laid his account in being honourably acquitted, and ordered his coach to be ready for

conveying him directly from the tribunal to London. A gentleman, his friend, by whom he was attended, having received intimation of the sentence to be pronounced, thought it his duty to prepare him for the occasion, that he might summon all his fortitude to his assistance, and accordingly made him acquainted with the information he had received. The admiral gave tokens of surprise and resentment, but betrayed no marks of fear or disorder either then, or in the court when the sentence was pronounced. On the contrary, while divers members of the court-martial manifested grief, anxiety, and trepidation, shedding tears, and sighing with extraordinary emotion, he heard his doom announced without undergoing the least alteration of feature, and made a low obeisance to the president and the other members of the court as he retired.

The officers who composed this tribunal were so sensible of the law's severity, that they unanimously subscribed a letter to the board of admiralty, containing this remarkable paragraph :—' We cannot help laying the distresses of our minds before your lordships on this occasion, in finding ourselves under a necessity of condemning a man to death, from the great severity of the 12th article of war, part of which he falls under, which admits of no mitigation, if the crime should be committed by an error in judgment; and, therefore, for our own consciences' sake, as well as in justice to the prisoner, we pray your lordships, in the most earnest manner, to recommend him to his majesty's clemency.' The lords of the admiralty, instead of complying with the request of the court-martial, transmitted their letter to the king, with copies of their proceedings, and a letter from themselves to his majesty, specifying a doubt with regard to the legality of the sentence, as the crime of negligence, for which the admiral had been condemned, was not expressed in any part of the proceedings. At the same time,

copies of two petitions from George, lord viscount Torrington, in behalf of his kinsman admiral Byng, were submitted to his majesty's royal wisdom and determination. All the friends and relations of the unhappy convict employed and exerted their influence and interest for his pardon; and as the circumstances had appeared so strong in his favour, it was supposed that the sceptre of royal mercy would be extended for his preservation. But infamous arts were used to whet the savage appetite of the populace for blood. The cry of vengeance was loud throughout the land: sullen clouds of suspicion and malevolence interposing, were said to obstruct the genial beams of the best virtue that adorns the throne; and the sovereign was given to understand, that the execution of admiral Byng was a sacrifice absolutely necessary to appease the fury of the people. His majesty, in consequence of the representation made by the lords of the admiralty, referred the matter to the consideration of the twelve judges, who were unanimously of opinion, that the sentence was legal. This report being transmitted from the privy-council to the admiralty, their lordships issued a warrant for executing the sentence of death, on the 28th day of February.

The unfortunate admiral, being thus abandoned to the stroke of justice, prepared himself for death with resignation and tranquillity. He maintained a surprising cheerfulness to the last, nor did he, from his condemnation to his execution, exhibit the least sign of impatience or apprehension. During that interval, he had remained on board of the *Monarque*, a third-rate ship of war, anchored in the harbour of Portsmouth, under a strong guard, in custody of the marshal of the admiralty. On the 14th of March, the day fixed for his execution, the boats belonging to the squadron at Spithead, being manned and armed, and containing their captains and officers, with a detachment of marines, attended this

solemnity in the harbour ; which was also crowded with an infinite number of other boats and vessels, filled with spectators. About noon, the admiral, having taken leave of a clergyman, and two friends who accompanied him, walked out of the great cabin to the quarterdeck, where two files of marines were ready to execute the sentence. He advanced with a firm, deliberate step, a composed and resolute countenance, and resolved to suffer with his face uncovered, until his friends representing that his looks would possibly intimidate the soldiers, and prevent their taking aim properly, he submitted to their request, threw his hat on the deck, kneeled on a cushion, tied one white handkerchief over his eyes, and dropped another as a signal for his executioners, who fired a volley so decisive, that five balls passed through his body, and he dropped down dead in an instant. The time in which this tragedy was acted, from his walking out of the cabin to his being deposited in the coffin, did not exceed three minutes.

Thus fell, to the astonishment of all Europe, admiral John Byng, who, whatever his errors and indiscretions might have been, seems to have been rashly condemned, meanly given up, and cruelly sacrificed to vile considerations. The sentiments of his own fate he avowed on the verge of eternity, when there was no longer any cause for dissimulation, in a declaration which, immediately before his death, he delivered to the marshal of the admiralty.

Yet, notwithstanding all that has been said in his favour, notwithstanding the infamous arts that were practised to keep up the cry against him, notwithstanding his solemn appeal to heaven in his last moments, and even self-conviction of innocence, the character of admiral Byng, in point of personal courage, will still with many people remain problematical. They will still be of opinion, that if the spirit of a British admiral had been properly exerted, the French fleet

would have been defeated, and Minorca relieved. A man's opinion of danger varies at different times, in consequence of an irregular tide of animal spirits, and he is actuated by considerations which he dares not avow. After an officer, thus influenced, has hesitated or kept aloof in the hour of difficulty, the mind, eager for its own justification, assembles, with surprising industry, every favourable circumstance of excuse, and broods over them with parental partiality, until it becomes not only satisfied, but even enamoured of their beauty and complexion ; like a doting mother, blind to the deformity of her own offspring. On the other hand, whatever the admiral's internal feelings might have been, and whatever his mode of exculpating himself in conscience, yet, as the tribunal before which he was tried acquitted him expressly of cowardice and treachery, he was, without all doubt, a proper object for royal clemency ; and so impartial posterity has judged him, now that those dishonourable motives of faction and of fear, by which his fate was influenced, are lost in oblivion, or remembered with disdain. But the people of Great Britain, naturally fierce, impatient, and clamorous, have been too much indulged, upon every petty miscarriage, with trials, court-martials, and dismissals ; which tend only to render their military commanders rash and precipitate, to make the populace more licentious and intractable, and to disgrace the national character in the opinion of mankind.

CHARLES TALBOT (1684—1737), son of the bishop of Durham, was admitted at Oriel, Oxford, and became a fellow of All Souls. He then studied at Lincoln's inn, rose to eminence at the bar, and was in 1726 made solicitor-general, and elected member for the city of Durham. In 1733 he was raised to the dignity of lord chancellor, and created baron Talbot ; and, during the few years he was spared to do the duties of his high office, he acquired

universal esteem by his integrity, wisdom, and beneficence. He died after a few days' illness, aged 58, 1737.

MAURICE, COUNT DE SAXE (1696—1750), natural son of Augustus I., king of Poland and the countess of Königsmark, was born at Dresden, and so early as twelve joined the allied army under prince Eugene and Marlborough. After practising as a soldier, without much theory, in Eugene's wars with Turkey, he at length became permanently attached to the French service, through the especial favour of the regent duke of Orleans, 1720; and he thereupon, with the rank of *maréchal-de-camp*, first began to study military tactics. In 1726 his ambition prompted him to stand candidate for the duchy of Courland; but he subsequently declined the offer of his brother, Augustus II., to take the command of the Saxon army. He acted with the French on the Rhine, under the duke of Berwick, distinguished himself at Dettingen and Philipsburg, and in 1744 was rewarded with the baton of *Maréchal de France*. In the war after the decease of Charles VI., he gained the battle of Fontenoy 1745, took Brussels, and in 1747, was victorious again at Lafeldt, and in 1748 at Maestricht. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle ensued; and the marshal died, soon after that event, aged 54, 1750. His '*Mes Rêveries*,' on the art of war, is a sensible and interesting book to the military man.

EDWARD BOSCAWEN (1711—1761), second son of Hugh, viscount Falmouth, was born in Cornwall, and having entered the naval profession early, was appointed to the *Shoreham*, 1740; in the command of which vessel he distinguished himself at Porto Bello and Carthage, where he stormed a battery at the head of a part of his crew. In 1744 he was promoted to the *Dreadnought*, a sixty-gun ship, in which he took the *Medea*, commanded by

M. Hocquart; and in 1747 he acted under Anson in the action off Cape Finisterre, and again took Hocquart (who had been exchanged) prisoner. In 1748 he was made a rear-admiral, and sent with a squadron to the East Indies, where he made himself master of Madras. In 1755 he was despatched to North America; and singular to relate, the ill fortune of M. Hocquart compelled him to strike again to the conqueror who had twice before subdued him. In 1758, in conjunction with lord Amherst, who commanded the land forces, he succeeded in reducing Louisbourg, and Cape Breton; and in 1759, having then the command of the Mediterranean, he pursued the Toulon fleet under De la Clue through the straits of Gibraltar, and coming up with it in Lagos Bay, completely defeated it, burning two ships, and taking three. For these services he received the thanks of parliament and 3000*l.* a year, with the rank of general of marines, 1760. He did not long enjoy his honours, but died in January of the following year, of a bilious fever, aged 50.

JOHN BYRON (1723—1768), second son of William, fourth lord Byron, was born at Newstead abbey, and entered very early into the navy. He was still, however, a midshipman 1740, when commodore Anson's expedition took place against the Spaniards in the South Sea; and Mr. Byron was on board the *Wager*, captain Cheap, one of the squadron. The *Wager*, getting separated from the rest, was unfortunately wrecked on a desert island, to the southward of Chiloe. After encountering the most dreadful sufferings from famine, a small number of the crew, including the captain and Mr. Byron, reached the isle of Chiloe, and surrendered themselves prisoners to the Spaniards. They were afterwards removed to Chili, and detained some time at Valparaiso and St. Jago, but were at length allowed to return to Eng-

land, where they arrived after an absence of more than five years. At a subsequent period, Mr. Byron published a 'Narrative' of his disastrous adventures, which is extremely interesting, not only from the nature of the subject, but also from the manner in which it is written. The young seaman was not deterred by his misfortunes from pursuing his naval career: he returned to the service of his country, and gradually rose to the rank of captain, when his skill and enterprising spirit occasioned his appointment to the command of an expedition fitted out to make discoveries in the South Sea. He sailed from England June 21, 1764, and, having circumnavigated the globe, returned home in May, 1766. Several islands were explored in this voyage, which were afterwards visited by Bougainville and Cook; and experiments were also made to determine the accuracy of Harrison's timekeeper, and its consequent value as a means of ascertaining the longitude. In 1767 captain Byron was raised to the rank of admiral, and sent in command of a fleet to the West Indies; but he died in the following year, 1768, aged 45. He left an only son, John, who dying before his uncle lord Byron, the title descended to John's only son, the subsequently celebrated poet, George Gordon Byron.

THOMAS SHERLOCK (1678—1761), son of Dr. William Sherlock, completed his education at Catherine-hall, Cambridge, and became its master. He succeeded his father as master of the Temple, an appointment which was held by the two for more than 70 years. He displayed great abilities in the vindication, by his discourses, of the corporation and test acts, against bishop Hoadly; in defence of the use and intent of prophecy, in answer to Collins; and in support of the miracle of Christ's resurrection, against Woolston. In 1728 he was made bishop of Bangor, in 1734, of Salisbury, and in 1748 of London; and he died, highly venerated for

his piety and learning, aged 83, 1761.

JOSEPH BUTLER (1692—1752), was son of a tradesman of Wantage, Berks. His family being presbyterians, he was placed at a dissenting seminary, where he had Isaac Watts for a schoolfellow; but his acute mind, on examining with soberness the principles of nonconformity, rejected them for the doctrines of the established church; and he entered at Oriel college, Oxford, where he formed a lasting intimacy with Edward Talbot, son of the bishop of Durham. Through his friendship he was appointed preacher at the Rolls, and made rector of Haughton and Stanhope, and prebendary of Rochester. In 1736 he was appointed clerk of the closet to queen Caroline, and two years after nominated to the see of Bristol, and deanry of St. Paul's. In 1746 he was clerk of the closet to the king, and in 1750 he was translated to Durham; and he died at Bath, aged 60, 1752. Bishop Butler was of a remarkably timid and hypochondriacal temperament; but what strength he lacked in body, was amply compensated by a power of mind, which has rarely been surpassed, as is proved by his immortal 'Analogy of Religion, natural and revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature.' His treatise on Personal Identity appended thereto, is a fine specimen of his dialectic skill. From this worthy man's publication of a charge, wherein he laid great stress on the necessity of the external forms of religion, coupled with his erection of a marble cross in his chapel at Bristol, it was absurdly alleged that he had turned Roman catholic; an assertion which archbishop Secker unnecessarily refuted.

THOMAS TANNER (1674—1735), born at Market-Lavington, Wilts, was son of the incumbent of that living, and completed his education at Queen's college, Oxford. He subsequently became a fellow of

All Souls; and devoting all his leisure hours to the study of antiquities, gained the favour of Moore (himself an antiquary), bishop of Norwich, through whose interest he was eventually raised to the see of St. Asaph, 1732. He died, aged 61, 1735. Bishop Tanner has established his literary reputation by his admirable work, '*Notitia Monastica*;' wherein he gives a most authentic account of the religious houses of England and Wales. He shows that the friars (*frères*) or mendicants, were the chief teachers of theology in Paris, and the best scholars at Oxford, especially the Franciscans. Regarded for their superior sanctity (above that of the monks), they were especially privileged to travel by the popes, and were long regarded with the highest esteem and veneration throughout Europe. Though friars, unlike the only other class of regular priests (the monks), had no property, either private or common (the monks in their monasteries throwing all their private property into one common fund), they at last, by the immense presents received from princes and the wealthy who constantly consulted them, became so rich, that they began devoting their money to the erection of 'mendicant monasteries;' and these became remarkable (as friars could spend nothing on estates) for their splendid oratories, churches, refectories, and tombs. It was the custom of sovereigns to prefer burial in mendicants' monasteries; and the chaste splendour of such memorials of the dead has never been equalled by other institutions.

THOMAS SECKER (1693—1768), like bishop Butler, the son of a dissenter, was born at Sibthorpe, Notts, and studied medicine. In a visit, however, to Paris, 1719, he became acquainted with Talbot, son of the bishop of Durham, who had a proneness to proselytism, and, as in the case of Butler, promised young Secker his father's patronage, if he would enter the English church.

The proposal being accepted, the convert entered at Exeter college, Oxford, and when ordained, obtained from bishop Talbot the rectory of Houghton-le-Spring, Durham, which he afterwards exchanged for a stall, and Ryton. In 1735 he was made bishop of Bristol, in 1737 of Oxford, and in 1758 archbishop of Canterbury. He was greatly afflicted with rheumatism in his latter years, and died of that complaint, aged 75, 1768. The dissenters had hoped much from the elevation of Secker, but he behaved with extreme distrust towards them; and in all that he wrote, he displayed a firm attachment to the tenets of the church in which he had taken refuge, and of which, somewhat singularly, he became the head.

JAMES HERVEY (1714—1758), born at Hardingsstone, Northamptonshire, completed his education at Lincoln college, Oxford, and succeeded his father in the livings of Weston Favell, and Collingtree, Northamptonshire. He attended to the duties of both parishes with such assiduity, that his health, never very robust, gave way, and he died of consumption, aged 44, 1758. Hervey's tenets were Calvinistic; and he is best known by his '*Meditations*,' a work which, while it displays the piety of the author, would be more deserving of praise, were it less pompous and affected in diction. The book has long been highly popular amongst a large class of readers, who, as Hervey himself might have said, are apt to prefer the gaudy tulips and dahlias of rhetoric, to her modest roses, and violets, and lilies of the valley. An interesting tribute was paid to the author's memory, 1833, by the celebration of a jubilee in his honour at Weston Favell, where his remains lie buried. A procession of the clergy and gentry of the neighbourhood set out from the rectory-house to the church; and after a party of young ladies, carrying baskets of picked flowers, had strown the tomb, which is at the foot of the altar, an ode,

written by James Montgomery, was recited by Mr. Cole.

ISAAC WATTS (1674—1748) was born at Southampton, and educated amongst the Independents. In 1696 he became tutor to the son of sir John Hartopp, at Stoke Newington; and in 1702 succeeded Dr. Chauncy as minister of a dissenting congregation in the metropolis. An attack of fever in 1712 obliged him to relinquish, for a time, his pastoral duties; when he obtained an asylum at the house of sir T. Abney, at Stoke Newington; and there he resided during the remainder of his life. His literary reputation became greatly extended by his numerous works, not only on subjects immediately connected with religion, but also on several branches of science and letters; in consequence of which he received diplomas of D.D. from Aberdeen and Edinburgh. He died a bachelor, aged 74, 1748. The 'Improvement of the Mind,' appended to his book on Logic, is Dr. Watts's most valuable production; and his 'Hymns and Divine Songs,' though by no means specimens of poetical excellence, have been, from their simple didactic and moralizing strain, highly popular and useful.

GEORGE WHITEFIELD (1714—1770) was born at Gloucester, where his father kept the Bell Inn; and completed his education as a servitor at Pembroke college, Oxford. At the university he became acquainted with the Wesleys, and joined the small society which soon obtained the name of 'Methodists,' from an attempt to display superior sanctity in general conduct. Hearing of Whitefield's devotional tendencies, Benson, bishop of Gloucester, ordained him deacon at 21; and when complaint was made of his first sermon at Gloucester having driven fifteen people mad, the prelate observed that 'he hoped the madness would not be forgotten before the next Sunday,' and encouraged him to return to Oxford, and graduate B.A. The account sent Whitefield by the Wes-

leys of their progress in Georgia, at length excited in him a desire to assist in their pious labours; and after a visit to them at Savannah, 1738, bishop Benson, on his return, 1739, did not scruple to confer on him priest's orders. On Whitefield's repairing to London, the churches in which he preached were incapable of holding the crowds who assembled to hear him; and he thereupon resorted to the open air, and had vast congregations in Moorfields, Kennington, and other unbuilt-on places. He again embarked for America, 1740; and after making a preaching tour through several provinces, arrived at Savannah, where he laid the foundation of an orphan-house, for which he had raised subscriptions, and returned to England, 1741. Differences now springing up between him and the Wesleys on the doctrines of election and reprobation, which he supported, the methodists became divided into two sects; the calvinistic portion owning Whitefield their coryphæus, and the arminian John Wesley; and although the former was now in debt through his orphan-house, he contrived to raise enough money from his admiring followers to clear himself, and to build the two 'tabernacles' in Moorfields and Tottenham-court-road. After preaching-tours in Scotland and Wales, and a third visit to America, whither he took his bride, a widow, 1744, he returned 1748; and having converted Selina, countess of Huntingdon, was made her chaplain. A visit to Ireland, and two more voyages to America followed; and for several years his preaching labours were unremitting. At length, on his sixth voyage to America, he died of asthma in New England, aged 56, 1770. The calvinistic methodists, or Huntingdonians, who may now be regarded as a scion of the low church of England, are still a party of strength, though far less numerous than the Wesleys. Whitefield was tall in person, with a cast in one eye; he was devoid of the usual school learning, but naturally elo-

quent; and this quality he supported by various stratagems, such as taking from under his gown, while preaching on one occasion, a human skull, and holding it aloft, to arrest the flagging attention of his hearers. Perhaps he was as sincere as Wesley, and possessed of less vanity; though below him in general intellect, and especially in the capacity for rule. Whitefield was scrupulously neat in his person; and whether only by himself, or having but a second, his table was always spread elegantly, though it often had on it nothing but a loaf and a cheese. Not a paper nor a piece of furniture was ever permitted to be out of place in his house; and he once curiously declared 'he did not think he should die easy, if his gloves were out of their proper receptacle.'

NATHANIEL LARDNER (1684—1768), born at Hawkhurst, Kent, was educated amongst dissenters; and becoming tutor to the son of lady Treby, 1713, travelled with the family over France, Holland, and the Netherlands. In 1723, he was employed in a course of lectures at the Old Bailey; but he did not obtain a settlement among the dissenters until 1729, when he became minister of Crutched Friars, and D.D. He died at Hawkhurst, where he had a small estate, aged 84, 1768. His fame rests on 'The Credibility of the Gospel History,' an admirable attempt to confirm the truth of the facts mentioned by the evangelists, by passages from contemporary authors.

JEREMIAH SEED, born at Clifton, Cumberland, graduated at Queen's college, Oxford, and became a fellow there, 1732. After being some time curate to Dr. Waterland at Twickenham, he obtained the college living of Enham, Hants, 1741, and died in that retirement, 1747. This exemplary divine has left to the world four volumes of admirable sermons on doctrinal subjects and matters of duty.

DANIEL WATERLAND (1683—1740), born at Waseley, Lincoln-

shire, completed his education at Magdalene college, Cambridge, and was elected master of that society, 1713. He obtained, amongst his preferments, the vicarage of Twickenham and the archdeaconry of Middlesex, and was chaplain to George I. He died, aged 57, 1740. Dr. Waterland is best known as a controversialist, and as the able vindicator of our Lord's divinity against Dr. Samuel Clarke. Hoadly, Conyers Middleton, Whitby, Sykes, and Tindal, were among his literary opponents; but while sturdily maintaining orthodoxy, the doctor was ever liberal and charitable towards those differing in sentiments from him.

MATTHEW TINDAL (1656—1733), born at Beer Ferris, Devon, graduated at Lincoln college, Oxford, and became a fellow of All Souls. At the opening of the reign of James II., he turned Romau catholic; but returning to the church of England at the Revolution, he vindicated that great constitutional change, and sat frequently as a judge in the court of delegates, with a pension of 200*l.* from the crown. He now wrote his 'Rights of the Christian Church against the Romish and all other Priests who claim an independent power over it,' a work which the high church party attacked with great violence: and when he published a defence of his principles, the commons had it burned by the hangman in the same fire with Sacheverell's sermon, thus treating the disputants on each side in the same manner. Tindal's next attack was on revealed religion; and his 'Christianity as old as the Creation,' published 1730, was assailed as it deserved, in no very measured terms by Waterland and others. Dr. Tindal died, aged 77, 1733.

FERDINAND, PRINCE OF BRUNSWICK (1721—1792), son of Ferdinand Albert, reigning duke of Brunswick Wolfenbittel, travelled at the age of 18 over Holland, France, and Italy; and on his return, in 1740, entered into the service of the king of Prus-

sia. Though so young, he distinguished himself by his courage and conduct on several occasions in the Silesian war. He was employed after the rupture of the convention of Closter-Seven by George II., who gave him the command of the English and Hanoverian forces destined to act against the French. He soon displayed his great abilities, by driving the enemy beyond the Rhine, and, by a daring and dexterous manœuvre, overcoming their army at Crevelt. In 1759 he gained the famous victory of Minden, memorable besides for the dispute he had with lord George Sackville, who commanded the English cavalry; and, in 1762, he drove the French out of Hesse. After the peace of 1763, he retired to Brunswick, and devoted the remainder of his life to philosophical studies, including the mysteries of freemasonry. He died, aged 71, 1792. He was uncle of the duke of Brunswick, who afterwards fell at Jena.

GEORGE, VISCOUNT SACKVILLE (1716—1785), was third son of the first duke of Dorset, and was educated at Westminster school, and Trinity college, Dublin, at which latter place he entered while his father was lord lieutenant of Ireland. Entering into the army, he served with reputation at the battles of Fontenoy and Dettingen; and, in 1759, he commanded the English cavalry at the battle of Minden, under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, whose orders to advance with his troops during the engagement he disobeyed, either from cowardice or misapprehension. His behaviour was generally attributed at home to the former cause, and a violent outcry was raised against him; in the midst of which he was tried by a court-martial, convicted of dereliction of duty, and sentenced to be dismissed the service with severe marks of the royal displeasure. He was restored to favour under the administration of lord Bute, 1761—63; and, in 1775, he was appointed colonial secretary of state, a post which he held throughout the contest with our

American colonies. On relinquishing it, 1782, he was created a viscount: and he died, aged 69, 1785. For a large portion of his life, this nobleman was known as lord George Germaine, having taken that name on account of succeeding to an estate left him by lady Elizabeth Germaine; and to his lordship was long ascribed the authorship of 'Junius's Letters.' The imputation of cowardice, in connexion with the Minden affair, which is, however, to be found strongly enforced against lord George in that work, is perhaps the best proof against the correctness of the ascription.

JOHN BROWN (1735—1788), born of poor parents at Buncle, in Berwickshire, obtained an education in the free-school at Dunse, and eventually studied medicine at Edinburgh, where he was gratuitously admitted as an indigent and ingenious scholar. Dr. Cullen was induced to employ him as a daily tutor to his sons, and this soon imboldened him to marry, and open a boarding-school; but through unskilfulness in the common affairs of life, he became a bankrupt. He now attempted to seek support from his old profession; and ambition prompting him to canvass for a medical chair in the university, he lost his election, and thereupon vented all his spleen upon Dr. Cullen, and became a bitter and sarcastic opponent to him and other professors. The real genius of the aspirant was now drawn forth. Brown had, by a long course of meditation on the animal system, seconded however by no aid of value from practical observation, devised a new and simple theory of medicine, in opposition to the complicated one of his former master, Cullen, then in the highest repute. The new practice was to supersede all that had hitherto prevailed, and to introduce certainty into an art avowedly imperfect and conjectural. The result was the publication of his 'Elementa Medicinæ,' which he further explained in a course of private lectures, that were attended by a great number of me-

dical students; some induced as usual by a fondness for novelty and speculation, and others by the idea held out of an abridgment of the ordinary course of study, which this system would render useless. Brown scrupled no means to push his doctrines; a new medical language was introduced; ideas totally at variance with former opinions were maintained; and the most virulent abuse of the regular professors of the university was perseveringly uttered. The theorist, vulgar in manners, and intemperate in conduct, was a very unfavourable object for imitation and example in all respects; yet he contrived to get a doctor's degree from St. Andrew's, and carried on the cantest for some years; until, ruined in reputation, and involved in his circumstances, he repaired in 1786 to London, where he died of apoplexy, aged 53, 1788. The main principle of Brown's system was that life was a forced state, and only sustained by the action of external agents operating upon the body, every part of which was endowed, at the commencement of existence, with a certain amount of excitability. If the power of force of the external exciting agents was within a certain limit, the body was maintained in equilibrium, or in health; if the force fell short of a certain amount, the excitability accumulated in the body and produced diseases which he termed *sthenic*; while the external agents, if in excess, exhausted the excitability too rapidly, and produced *asthenic* diseases. The means of remedying these diseases were in accordance with the views of their origin, and were equally simple and few. He discarded the numerous drugs which his predecessors and contemporaries employed, and confined himself to two—alcohol in any of its forms, as wine, brandy, &c., as a remedy for the one set of diseases, and opium for the opposite class. In Germany and Italy, his doctrines met with a very general reception, and much mischief was the result, from

the unqualified trust reposed in a system too general and abstract for individual cases: their influence, however, has long since ceased, and the best that can be said of them is, that they were useful in exterminating numerous false and trifling analogies which had long misled the medical world, and in leading to a steady and full trial of vigorous and efficient remedies.

JOHN ARMSTRONG (1708—1779), born at Castleton, Roxburghshire, studied for the medical profession at Edinburgh, and settled in London as a physician. His tendency, however, to appear as a general author barred his advancement; and he was compelled henceforth to be known only as a *didactic* practitioner. The indelicacy of his first poem, 'The Economy of Love,' was forgotten when his 'Art of preserving Health,' another effort of his muse, appeared 1744. But no subsequent work of Dr. Armstrong was equal to that poem; and the author was glad again to practise in his profession, as physician to the army in Germany. At the peace of 1763 he returned to London, and in 1771 accompanied Mr. Fuseli in a tour of Italy; of which he has left us an account, under the assumed style of Lancelot Temple. That name he had before put to some 'Sketches,' on various subjects, that had gained him some little applause by the proofs they afforded of the author's knowledge of the world. He aided the poet Thomson, by contributing to his 'Castle of Indolence' the fine stanzas descriptive of the maladies to which the votaries of indolence become martyrs; and he died aged 71, 1779. The 'Art of Preserving Health' is, without doubt, one of the best didactic English efforts, while the poetry is often of a very superior cast.

JOHN JORTIN (1698—1770) was born in London, and educated at the Charter-house, and Jesus college, Cambridge. His father, who had been a gentleman of king Wil-

liam's privy-chamber," was on board the vessel of sir Cloudesley Shovel, and perished with that admiral at sea. Young Jortin took orders in 1724, and soon after obtained the vicarage of Swavesey; but he resigned this preferment to live in London, where he appeared as an author on various subjects, gaining deserved applause for his 'Remarks on Ecclesiastical History,' and assailing some notions in Warburton's 'Divine Legation.' In 1781 he obtained the living of St. Dunstan's-in-the-East, London, and in 1762 a stall in St. Paul's and the vicarage of Kensington. He died, aged 72, 1770. Jortin was as simple and amiable in private character as he was punctual and upright in the discharge of his public duties. His sermons are fine specimens of sound theology, couched in language highly elegant, concise, and oratorical.

ANTHONY ASKEW (1722—1774), born at Kendal, Westmoreland, was educated at Emanuel college, Cambridge, and then went to study medicine at Leyden. After a visit to Constantinople in the suite of the British ambassador, he returned to England, and settled in London as a physician. As he had an ample fortune, practice was not his object; and he occupied his chief time in learned ease, and in the collection of fine editions, and MSS. of Greek and Latin authors—works which sold after his death for 5000*l*. He was a very elegant Latin versifier; and while contemplating the editing of *Æschylus*, he died, aged 52, 1774.

EDWARD YOUNG (1681—1765), born at Upham, Hants, was son of the dean of Sarum, and educated at Winchester, and New College, Oxford. He became a fellow of All Souls, and not purposing to take orders, devoted himself to literature, and was induced by the duke of Wharton to stand his election as member for Cirencester, but failed. He therefore took orders, 1727; and soon after was appointed chaplain to the king, and withdrew from the

stage his tragedy of 'The Two Brothers,' which was already in rehearsal. He was afterwards presented by his college to the living of Welwyn, Herts, and in 1739 married lady Elizabeth Lee, daughter of the earl of Lichfield, and widow of colonel Lee, whom he lost the following year. To relieve himself from the heavy melancholy which this event brought upon him, he began his 'Night Thoughts;' but though in this work he seemed to bid adieu to the world, he, at the age of 80, solicited further patronage from Secker, and was appointed clerk of the closet to the princess dowager. He died, aged 84, 1765. Dr. Young will ever live in his 'Night Thoughts,' a work compressing a host of ethical truths and didactic maxims into the smallest possible compass, and requiring constantly the utmost attention of the reader. Though the general tenour of the book would lead us to suppose the author a gloomy and austere person, he was, on the contrary, uniformly cheerful in temperament, the promoter of innocent pastimes among his parishioners, and the lively, elegant, and hospitable entertainer of his friends. In his poem, it should be remembered that his step-son is represented by Philander, and his step-daughter by Narcissa.

JAMES THOMSON (1700—1748), son of a kirk minister, was born at Ednam, Roxburghshire, and educated at Edinburgh university. Giving up his previous intention of taking orders, he came to London, and published his 'Winter' 1726, which introduced him to lord chancellor Talbot, who made him travelling tutor to his son. The popularity of 'Winter' produced 'Summer' in 1727, 'Spring' 1728, and 'Autumn' in 1730; but the death of his noble pupil was soon after followed by that of the chancellor, and Thomson was thus reduced from a state of comfort to a precarious subsistence. At last lord Lyttleton obtained for him the post of surveyor-general of the Leeward islands; and

this he held till his death, of fever, at Richmond, Surrey, at the age of 48, 1748. Besides the 'Seasons,' which the four productions already named were at length collectively denominated, and which though occasionally laboured, have, by their sensibility and natural delineation, established the author's fame as a classically elegant descriptive poet, Thomson wrote some plays; one of which, the tragedy of 'Tancred and Sigismunda,' has ever been popular. His last and very admirable performance was 'The Castle of Indolence.'

THOMAS GRAY (1716—1771), son of a money-scrivener, was born in London, and educated at Eton, and Peterhouse, Cambridge. As he was designed for the law, he entered at the Inner Temple, 1738; but an invitation to travel with Mr. Walpole induced him to relinquish his studies for a time; and his father dying soon after his return from the continent, 1741, he found himself possessed of property sufficient to live upon. He now retired to Cambridge, where he occupied himself several years in laying literary schemes and plans of magnitude; which he often admirably commenced, but uniformly wanted energy to mature. At length he appeared as a poet, 1747, by the publication of his 'Ode on Eton college,' which was followed by his 'Elegy in a country Churchyard,' the last a production which ran through eleven editions, was translated into Latin verse, and has secured lasting popularity. In 1759 Gray removed to London, and was, in 1768, presented by the duke of Grafton with the professorship of modern history at Cambridge, worth 300*l.* a year; in consequence of which he wrote the 'Ode for Music' for the installation of that nobleman as chancellor of the university, 1769. He died of the gout in his stomach, aged 55, 1771, at Stoke Poges, Bucks. Gray was an elegant writer of Latin verse: as an English lyric poet he is energetic, mellifluous and often splendid; but he is rarely sublime, or pathetic. He was in

conduct a highly moral and honourable man, friendly and hospitable, though with somewhat coxcomical notions of elegance, dignity, and the value of birth.

ALLAN RAMSAY (1696—1768), born at Peebles, in Scotland, was originally a barber at Edinburgh; but possessing a strong genius, he devoted himself to the Muses; and amongst numerous poems, produced his 'Gentle Shepherd,' a pastoral comedy, which for simplicity and elegance is universally admired. For some time he kept a bookseller's shop, and died, aged 67, 1768.

WILLIAM COLLINS (1720—1756), was son of a hatter of Chichester, and went from Winchester school to Queen's college, Oxford, whence he removed to Magdalen. While at the university, he published his 'Oriental Eclogues,' admirable for simplicity and tenderness; and their success unfortunately induced him to remove to London, 1744, as a literary adventurer. Wholly wanting in the prudence necessary to render so precarious a mode of life the means of support, his disappointments made inroads upon a frame, originally very sensitive and delicate; and though he did not suffer a positive loss of intellect, he was placed by his friends in a lunatic asylum, whence his sister took him to die, at the age of 36, 1756. His 'Odes,' during his life so little appreciated, are perhaps the most admirable productions of the kind in the whole range of English poetry; replete with pathos, noble in conception, highly imaginative, and unaffectedly sublime.

WILLIAM SHENSTONE (1714—1763), born at Hales Owen, Salop, completed his education at Pembroke college, Oxford; and being unresolved as to a profession, he wandered about, sometimes visiting London, sometimes Bath, until, in 1745, he settled on his paternal estate, The Leasowes, at Hales Owen. There he began a series of romantic improvements, which terminated in the greatest pecuniary distress. His

leisure, until his worst misfortunes came, was devoted to the Muses; and he published numerous elegies, songs, and odes, in an easy, simple, and elegant style. The harass occasioned by dread of a gaol, at last brought on a putrid fever, which terminated his life at the age of 49, 1763.

DAVID MALLET (1700—1765), born at Crief in Scotland, became in 1720 tutor in the family of Mr. Home of Edinburgh. In 1723 he gladly accepted the offer of accompanying the two younger sons of the duke of Montrose to Winchester school; and in the same year his admired ballad of 'William and Margaret' appeared in the 'Plain Dealer' of Aaron Hill. He subsequently made the tour of Europe with his pupils; and on his return, settled in London, and dropped his name of Mallock for Mallet. A self-educated man, it is not matter of wonder that he should now show himself a sceptic in religion; nor that, being a sceptic in religion, he should become a venal poet. Accordingly, being made under secretary to Frederick, prince of Wales, he lent himself to the resentment of lord Bolinbroke against his deceased friend, Pope, for having clandestinely printed his lordship's 'Idea of a Patriot King;' and on the prosecution of admiral Byng, he was employed by the ministry to assist in making that unfortunate officer their scapegoat, his reward being a considerable pension. On the accession of lord Bute to the helm, he wrote his tragedy of 'Elvira,' to which a political tendency was given to serve the politics of that nobleman; and he obtained a place in the customs for that service. After accumulating a handsome property by such means, Mallet died, aged 65, 1765.

CHARLES CHURCHILL (1731—1764), son of a clergyman, was born in Westminster, and educated at the school there; but he made so bad use of his time, that he was refused admission at Oxford for in-

capacity. He married at 17, and when ordained, went upon a poor curacy, into Wales, where, forgetful of his profession, he became a merchant; and his prospects of independence, ended in a bankruptcy, and he came back to London. On the death of his father, he succeeded to his curacy of St. John's Westminster, and now taught young ladies to read and write; but he was with difficulty saved from gaol by the humanity of Mr. Lloyd, second master of Westminster school, who liberally satisfied his creditors. The success of the 'Actor,' by young Lloyd, encouraged Churchill to cultivate the Muses; and he published his 'Rosciad,' which was universally admired. The popularity of this and other poems, and the emoluments arising from the sale, now altered the manners of the poet. He quitted the habit and sobriety of a clergyman, became a fashionable man of the town, abandoned his wife, and launched into all the extravagance of dissipated life. He was on a visit to his friend Wilkes, at Boulogne, when a fever carried him off, aged 33, 1764.

JOHN DYER (1700—1758), born at Aberglasney in Wales, was educated at Westminster-school, and studied the law; but had a greater relish for poetry and design, and therefore determined to become a painter. In 1727 he published his 'Grongar-hill,' a beautiful little poem, and afterwards set out for Italy, to delineate the antiquities of that celebrated country. At his return, in 1740, appeared his poem, 'The Ruins of Rome;' and, taking orders soon after, he was presented to the living of Calthorp, Leicestershire. That he exchanged for Belchford, Lincolnshire, and ultimately obtained the rectory of Coningsbury; the parsonage of which he was enlarging and improving, when a rapid consumption took him to the grave, aged 58, 1758. The two poems named, and his 'Fleece,' are very delightful productions; sublime yet simple, and breathing forth the purest

flames of benevolence and humanity.

WILLIAM SOMERVILLE (1692—1743) born of a good family at Edston, Warwickshire, was educated at Winchester-school, and New college, Oxford; and inheriting a good paternal estate, he lived chiefly thereon, acting as a magistrate, and mingling an ardent attachment to the sports of the field with the studies of a man of letters. He was courteous, hospitable, convivial, and what is too often attendant upon those qualities, careless in pecuniary matters; and this last, by involving him in embarrassments, preyed on his mind, and imbibited his life to its termination, at the age of 51, 1743. He is chiefly known by his 'Chase,' a poem in blank verse, which maintains a respectable rank in the didactic and descriptive class; his enthusiasm as a sportsman aiding his talents as a poet.

MARK AKENSIDE (1721—1770), son of a wealthy butcher of Newcastle-on-Tyne, was sent at 18 to Edinburgh, with a view to becoming a preacher amongst dissenters; but he preferred medicine, and was allowed by his father to study at Leyden, where he published a much admired dissertation on the growth of the human fetus. On quitting Leyden he practised as a physician at Northampton, afterwards at Hampstead, and then in London, where his friend Dyson supported his appearance by an allowance of 300*l.* a year. His abilities began now to recommend him: he published several medical treatises, especially on dysenteries, &c., and became physician to the queen. He died of putrid fever aged 49, 1770. Akenside is now chiefly known by his 'Pleasures of Imagination,' a poem which, as the production of a young man of 23, is a very astonishing effort. Though somewhat stiff in style, from the author's naturally haughty character, his anxious desire to be correct, and his addiction to ornament, it is a perfect model of blank verse. Smollett, in allusion to Akenside's hauteur,

has described him with his usual satirical skill in his *Peregrine Pickle*, as giving a feast after the manner of the ancients.

RICHARD SAVAGE (1698—1743) was the natural son of Anne, countess of Macclesfield and the earl of Rivers; and passed a life of misery, through the singular malice of his erring mother. His father was prevented leaving him a legacy of 6000*l.* because the countess declared he was dead; and then she endeavoured to send him to the plantations; and next placed him apprentice to a shoemaker in Holborn. The death of the nurse altered his situation; for in searching the effects of her whom he had considered his mother, Savage discovered letters which informed him of his birth. Leaving in disdain his humble profession, he addressed himself to his real parent; but appeals were in vain upon her obdurate heart, and therefore, as he had acquired some learning at St. Alban's school, he commenced author. Though noticed by the wits of the age, Savage often passed his nights in the open fields or in the streets, unable to pay even for an obscure lodging. His tragedy of 'Sir Thomas Overbury,' at last raised him to the short independence which could be gained from the profits of 200*l.*; but whilst he congratulated himself on his success, he in a drunken quarrel killed a Mr. Sinclair. He was tried and found guilty; and his mother not only rejoiced at his condemnation, but used her influence to cause him to be executed—a wish which would have been gratified, had not the countess of Hertford reported to the queen the relationship of the parties, and obtained his pardon. Lord Tyrconnel next took him into his family, with an allowance of 200*l.* a year; and he soon after published 'The Bastard,' a poem of great beauty, which drove his unnatural mother out of society, intended as it was to expose her conduct. Savage was by no means himself without great faults; he lost his patron and friends by his

ungrateful and licentious conduct; and at last was brought to such a low estate, that he was for more than a year in the habit of passing his nights in the society of the meanest rabble—in the summer sleeping on heaps of rubbish, and in the winter among the ashes of a glass-house. Some friends now promised to raise him 50*l.* if he would retire to Wales, and live there in privacy; but though he went thither, he soon sighed for the dissipation of London, and returning, was arrested by the mistress of his coffee-house for the sum of 8*l.* He died in gaol of a fever, aged 45, 1743. His works are usually found with a *Life of the Author* by Dr. Johnson, who often shared his poverty, and was a witness to his sufferings, his follies, and his imprudence.

COLLEY CIBBER (1671—1757), son of Gabriel Cibber, a talented sculptor, two of whose works are still to be seen (the brazen statues of a raving and a melancholy maniac) in Bethlem Hospital, was born in London and educated at Grantham school. The revolution preventing his entering at Oxford, he turned soldier, and then went on the stage, and appeared in inferior characters at the salary of ten shillings a week. To augment his small income, he, like Shakspeare, essayed to be play writer as well as actor; and, in 1696, appeared his '*Love's last Shift*,' and in 1706, his best drama, '*The Careless Husband*,' which had great success. In 1711 he obtained a share in the patent of Drury-lane theatre with Wilks and Dogget; and in 1717, came forth his last and most profitable play, '*The Nonjuror*,' a new version of which, under the title of '*The Hypocrite*,' is yet a favourite on the stage, and which in itself is little more than an adaptation of the *Tartuffe* of Molière. George I. now granted Cibber a pension, and George II., in 1730, made him laureat; but little inspired as he was, the appointment was the means of exposing him to much ridicule. He, however, had sense enough to join in the laugh against himself, sold

his share in the theatre (though he continued on the boards as an occasional performer), and in 1740 published '*An Apology for the Life of Mr. Colley Cibber*,' an amusing piece of autobiography, interspersed with anecdotes of the characters and scenes of the day, and which at least proves the author to have been undeserving of Pope's ill-natured adoption of him as the hero of his *Dunciad*. Cibber died, aged 86, 1757.

PIETRO METASTASIO (1698—1782), born at Rome, became the most illustrious poet of modern Italy. At fourteen he produced his tragedy of *Giustino*; which produced him the patronage of the jurist Gravina, whom he accompanied to Naples, 1718, and there assumed the clerical habit as an abbate. Gravina soon after died, and left the poet 15,000 crowns, which he contrived in two years to dissipate, through (it is said) a platonic friendship with Brugnattelli, usually called the Romanina, the most celebrated actress and singer of Italy. The fame of his operas, '*Gli Orti Esperidi*,' and '*Semiramide*,' extending beyond the Alps, he, in 1730, accepted an invitation from the court of Vienna to take up his residence in that capital, as coadjutor to the imperial laureat, Apostolo Zeno, whom he ultimately succeeded. The life of Metastasio henceforward presented a calm uniformity for upwards of half a century; during which period he retained the favour of the imperial family undiminished, his extraordinary talents being admirably seconded by the calm tenour of his private character, and his avoidance of court intrigue. He died at Vienna, aged 84, 1782; and his decease was immediately followed by that of Farinelli, the well-known singer, who about 1723 had begun his theatrical career with him, and on such friendly terms, and such continued correspondence, that they called each other '*Gemelli*.' The poetry of Metastasio is highly refined, eloquent, pathetic, and elevated in sentiment; but it has few natural delineations, and though it pleasingly occupies the imagination, rarely satis-

fies the judgment—at least of the English reader.

STEPHEN DUCK (1708—1756), a poet of extraordinary fortune, who from being a thrasher in his native parish of Charlton, near Marlborough, Wilts, became a respectable divine. Possessing a powerful mind, and being of a persevering character, he first applied at twenty-four to the acquisition of knowledge; and contriving to obtain a few books, he, amidst the menial labours of the farm on which he was a servant, became both a poet and philosopher. The lines of Milton enriched his imagination, and the correctness of Addison's *Spectators* improved his understanding, and helped him in the regular disposition of his thoughts. His poetical attempts were made known to some of the clergy, and at last to Caroline, queen of George II., who settled a pension of 30*l.* upon him, and enabled him not only to live independently, but to take orders; after which he was presented to the living of Byfleet, Surrey. Here he behaved with great propriety; he was followed as a preacher, and respected as a man; but his spirits at length sank into a dreadful melancholy, and, in an unfortunate moment, he threw himself from a bridge near Reading into the Thames, and was drowned, in his 49th year, 1756. His poetry is certainly much above mediocrity; and his poet's velvet cap is still preserved by the parochial officers of Charlton.

PROSPER DE CREBILLON (1674—1762), born of a respectable family at Dijon, was educated by Jesuits, but relinquished the law for the tragic muse. His second production, '*Atreus*,' notwithstanding its horrid catastrophe, established his fame; and his '*Rhadamistus*' soon after gave him claim to more than popular applause. Neglected by the court, Crebillon for some years retired from society; but in 1731 he was admitted into the French Academy, from which period till his death he continued writing on historical subjects for the stage. He died, aged 88, 1762.

The power of Crebillon in depicting the violent passions places him at the head of that style of modern dramatic poetry; and he thus may well be designated the French *Æschylus*. His graces are few; but strength and vigour are every where discernible, even in his somewhat neglected plays of *Xerxes*, *Semiramis*, *Electra*, *Pyrrhus*, and *Catiline*.

PHILIP DORMER STANHOPE (1694—1773), son of the third earl of Chesterfield, was born in London, and completed his education at Trinity hall, Cambridge. He in 1714 began the tour of Europe; and after receiving lessons of gaming at the Hague, polishing his manners under the dissipated belles of Paris, and visiting Italy, returned 1715 to become gentleman of the bedchamber to the prince of Wales. In the first parliament of George I., he sat for St. Germain's; and he supported the prince's opposition to the court, until called, by his father's decease 1726, to the house of lords. There, elegant and perspicuous in his delivery, with an unexhaustible command of language, adorned by all the graceful arts of high-bred urbanity and sportive facetiousness, he acquired decisive superiority above most other orators; so that when George II. succeeded, he was placed in offices of trust and honour. He went in 1728 ambassador to Holland, and was rewarded with the garter, and the office of high steward to the household; but when his opposition to Walpole, in 1732, had stripped him of his dignities, he for twelve years attacked the measures of government, until the coalition of parties in 1744 restored him to a seat in the cabinet. In 1745 he went on an embassy to Holland, but hastened back to become lord lieutenant of Ireland; where the mildness of his government conciliated the affections of the Irish nation. He was made secretary of state 1746, but resigned two years after, and died, aged 79, 1773. As a public character, lord Chesterfield is highly to be esteemed.

As a patron, he was the friend of Pope and other talented authors; but his conduct to Johnson, whose adulation he sought, after turning a deaf ear to his application for patronage, exposed him to the indignant contempt of that unbending moralist. As an author, his fame rests on his celebrated 'Letters,' sent to his natural son; the fascinating and intellectual style of which has blinded many to the fact, that in wishing to form him for the higher ranks of life, he has shown himself the advocate of hypocrisy, licentiousness, and infidelity. A studied relaxation of principle is apparent throughout those productions; popularity was to be gained by every art which can sacrifice honour, religion, and morality; and, as Johnson well observed, 'Chesterfield's letters are well calculated to ingraft the morals of a strumpet upon the manners of a dancing-master.'

SAMUEL RICHARDSON (1689—1761) was born in Derbyshire, whither his father, a London joiner, had retired to a small farm. Though he had no particular education, he was early imbued with religious principles by his mother; and after having established himself as a printer in London, was fortunate enough to obtain from the speaker, Onslow, the lucrative office of printer of the journals of the commons. In 1780 he purchased a moiety of the patent of law-printer to the king. In 1740 appeared his 'Pamela,' which was followed by 'Clarissa Harlowe,' and 'Sir Charles Grandison;' all alike popular novels, and in which he has presented to the reader a most interesting and accurate picture of human nature. Richardson thus raised himself to celebrity and opulence; and in the midst of wealth, he was the kind master, and the hospitable friend, and never forgot to add exemplary conduct to religious appearances. He died, aged 72, 1761.

TOBIAS SMOLLETT (1721—1771) youngest son of Archibald, son of sir James Smollett of Bonhill, bart.,

was born at Dalquhurn, Dumbar-tonshire, and early apprenticed to a surgeon at Glasgow. The death of his grandfather, without mention of him in his will, induced him to become surgeon's mate in a ship of the line going against Carthage; of which ill-conducted expedition he subsequently published an account. He was soon disgusted with the naval service, which he quitted in the West Indies, and resided some time in Jamaica; and on his return to Scotland, 1746, the severities used by the duke of Cumberland towards the Jacobites after the fight of Cul-loden, induced him to write his short poem, 'The Tears of Scotland,' which by its spirit, pathos, and elegance, attracted considerable attention. He soon after married; but receiving only a small part of his wife's expected fortune, he was under the necessity of applying once more to his pen, and produced 'Roderick Random.' 'Peregrine Pickle,' appeared 1751, and became a favourite with the public, both for its own intrinsic merit, and its admirable portraiture of a lady of quality (lady Vane) and of a republican doctor (Akenside). 'Count Fathom' appeared in 1754; and soon after, for a libel in the Critical Review, on admiral Knowles, as connected with the Rochefort expedition, he was fined 100*l.* and imprisoned in the king's bench for three months; during which he wrote his 'Sir Launcelot Greaves,' wherein he fails in his attempt to apply the Cervantic humour to the case of an English knight-errant, whose eccentricities excite compassion rather than raillery. In 1762 he defended lord Bute's administration, and published 'the Briton,' which was rapidly encountered by the celebrated 'North Briton' of Wilkes. The latter, backed by the public voice, soon reduced 'the Briton' to silence, and dissolved a friendship which had long subsisted between the authors. In 1763, grief at the loss of his daughter

induced him to make a tour through France and Italy, where he spent two years; and on his return he published his 'Travels,' which Sterne, in his *Sentimental Journey*, has ridiculed under the name of 'Smelfungus.' In 1764 he published his 'Adventures of an Atom,' a political satire, in ridicule of different administrations, but particularly of that of lord Chatham. Increasing disease induced him to revisit Italy 1770, as a last resource; and he had still sufficient mental vigour to compose his last, and, as many think, his best novel, 'The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker.' In the cynical but humane character of Matthew Bramble, the author is supposed to have had an eye to himself, whom he also more formally sketches under the name of Serle in the same work. This was the last flash of his genius; and he died near Leghorn, aged 50, 1771. Smollett was a highly upright man in private character. As a novelist, he displays much original genius, though, in the bad taste of his day, there is a good deal of licence in his productions. As a poet, he was singularly descriptive and pathetic; and as an historian, he was an animated and facile narrator, rather than a philosopher of events. He was exposed to great mortifications by the spirit of faction; and he must be added to the number of those who, after contributing to the amusement, the improvement, and the intellectual pleasures of others, find vexation, disgust, and neglect the reward for mental exertion.

HENRY FIELDING (1707—1754) was born of a good family at Sharpsham-park, Somerset, and educated at Eton, whence he removed to Leyden; but while his father's losses and large family shortened his period of study, his own dissipated turn diverted him from the choice of a profession, and play-writing became his hobby. His commencing efforts, however, in this way did little more than (because of his mixing up poli-

tics with his plots) afford sir Robert Walpole an excuse for his act to limit the number of theatres, and submit dramatic performances to the licence of the lord chamberlain. In his 27th year he married Miss Craddock, of Salisbury, a young lady of great beauty, and some fortune; and at the same time, by the death of his mother, he became possessed of a small estate in Dorsetshire; but his extravagance brought him, in three years, with a young family, to the verge of beggary. He now dedicated himself to the bar, and, till he could obtain briefs, wrote 'The History of Jonathan Wild,' and other similar things, for subsistence; but nothing took much with the public, except his novel of 'Joseph Andrews,' 1742; and the comfort he derived from what that brought him, was alloyed by the death of his wife, whom he had tenderly loved. On recovering his spirits, he began to write on behalf of the existing government, and started 'The True Patriot,' 1745, against which 'The Jacobite Journal' was launched; and his labours were thereupon rewarded with the then not altogether reputable office of a Middlesex justice. To the credit of Fielding, however, he did much to render it more respectable, by an attention to the prevention of crimes, and to the regulation of the police; and in the midst of those serious occupations, he wrote his 'Tom Jones,' which was followed in 1751 by 'Amelia.' At length, however, his constitution began to yield, to the frequent attacks of an hereditary gout; and two months after arriving at Lisbon, whither his physician had ordered him, he died, aged 47, 1754. Fielding stands at the head of the novel-writing school in England, if we regard accurate delineation of character, an intimate acquaintance with the human heart, wit, and genuine humour. Like all the writers of fiction of his day, he was prurient, fond of groping for nature amongst the vulgar, often coarse in description, and addicted to throwing a gloss upon vice; and

it is to be regretted that a very modern school has, in spite of the labours of a Scott to abolish from romantic lore indecency, vulgarity, and the inclination to speak respectfully of great scoundrels, and to soften down immorality by styling it an excess of 'goodness of heart,' gone back to this defilement.

GEORGE CHEYNE (1671—1743), born in Scotland, after studying divinity very closely, devoted himself to medicine at Edinburgh, and then settled in London as a physician 1701. Here, from indulging too much in the pleasures of the table, he became so corpulent, as to be scarcely able to mount a pair of stairs; whereupon he resolved to adopt a total change of diet, of which he has given an account in his 'English Malady,' once a book of extraordinary popularity. By the use of a milk regimen principally, he reduced himself from the enormous weight of 32 stone to nearly a third, and lived in health to the age of 72. He died at Bath, 1743.

WILLIAM STUKELY (1687—1765), born at Holbeach, Lincolnshire, completed his studies at Bennet college, Cambridge, and then practised as a physician at Boston, London, and lastly at Grantham. Repeated attacks of the gout at length caused him to abandon his profession for the church; and after receiving orders from archbishop Wake, he obtained the living of All Saints, Stamford, 1730, whence he removed to Somerby, near Grantham, and in 1747 to the rectory of St. George, Queen's-square, London. There he died of palsy, aged 77, 1765. The fame of Dr. Stukely rests on his antiquarian speculations, which, though occasionally meriting the raillery which the credulity of his fraternity induces, made important accessions to our knowledge of the early monuments of human art and industry belonging to our country. His chief works are 'Itinerarium Curiosum,' and 'An Account of Stonehenge.'

WILLIAM HOGARTH (1697—1764),

son of a schoolmaster, was born on Ludgate-hill, London, and bound apprentice to a plate engraver. The finest piece by which he distinguished himself was a representation of Wanstead assembly, about 1720: and he then engaged, on his own account, engraving arms and shop-bills, and designing plates for booksellers. His cuts for Hudibras and other works, are still preserved as curiosities; but his powers were exerted with singular effect also in portrait-painting. He thus rose to fame, and in 1730 clandestinely married sir James Thornhill's daughter; and the knight, after a little squabble, was proud of the connexion. During his residence at South Lambeth, Hogarth contributed largely to the embellishment of Vauxhall-gardens, by painting allegorical subjects for Tyers, the manager; and in 1733 appeared the first of a series of works, which have given him an undying name. This was the set of engravings entitled 'The Harlot's Progress'; and at once successful in a new mode of conveying moral instruction, he produced in succession 'The Midnight Conversation,' 'The Rake's Progress,' 'The Marriage à-la-Mode,' 'The Happy Marriage,' &c. After the piece of Aix-la-Chapelle, he visited France, and, while taking a drawing of the gates of Calais, was arrested as a spy, but soon liberated—a circumstance which he recorded in his 'O the Roast Beef of Old England,' 1749. In 1753, in his 'Analysis of Beauty,' he was the first to assert that a curve is the line of beauty; an opinion which has been since allowed founded in truth and nature. Hogarth died at his house in Leicester-square, aged 67, 1764. The historical paintings of this talented man were few, but very finely executed; of which his 'Paul before Felix,' now in Lincoln's-inn-hall, is a good specimen.

JAMES THORNHILL (1676—1732) was of a respectable but reduced family. Having a taste for painting, he, by the aid of his uncle, the great

Sydenham, travelled early on the continent, and made a valuable collection of some of the pieces of the best masters ; and his talents became at length so spoken of, that queen Anne intrusted to him the beautifying of the dome of St. Paul's with the history of that saint, which he executed in a grand style, on eight panels. He acquired much fame by painting with allegorical and other subjects the ceiling of Greenwich Hospital, a room at Hampton-court, the hall at Blenheim, and the altarpiece of All Souls', Oxford ; and having become wealthy, he obtained a seat in the commons, and was knighted by George II. Hogarth, as has been stated, married his daughter ; and he died, aged 56, 1732. Thornhill's colouring was defective ; but for the alleged faults of his ceiling-perspective some allowance must be made, since the difficulty must be great to give due effect to designs painted on vaulted and often unequal-shaped surfaces. Of his historical paintings, his 'St. Paul at Melita,' is regarded the best. It records the apostle's shaking the viper from his hand.

LADY MARY WORTLEY MONTAGUE (1690—1762), eldest daughter of Evelyn Pierpont, duke of Kingston, was born at Thoresby Notts. She was instructed by bishop Burnet in Greek and Latin, and married, 1712, Edward Wortley Montague, a gentleman of great political knowledge and influence, distinguished as an eloquent member of parliament, and as the friend of Addison. In 1716 she accompanied her husband in his embassy to Constantinople ; and while in Turkey, examined the manners and habits of the people, and communicated by letter her observations to her friends in England ; a correspondence on which her fame as an author rests. On her return, 1718, she introduced among Christians inoculation for the smallpox, having seen it practised by the Turks ; and, until the adoption of vaccination, the boon was acknowledged by all

Europe. It had before been common for the destructive disorder to cause blindness, or some other grievous deprivation (if it did not kill), in one case out of fifty ; but its baleful influence was suddenly restricted to one in 500 ! Now settling at Twickenham, lady Mary formed an intimacy, which, however, did not endure, with the irascible Pope ; in 1739, she settled at Brescia, near Venice, for the benefit of her health, and continued there till 1761, when she returned to see her daughter, who had married lord Bute ; and she died 1762, aged 72. Lady Mary's claims as a poet are to ease and grace, though with a too frequent disregard of delicacy ; but as a letter-writer she will ever be accounted superior, for her wit, solidity, and descriptive powers.

WILLIAM HAY, a gentleman of fortune, who represented Seaford in parliament from 1734 till his death in 1755, aged 56. He defended the measures of sir Robert Walpole ; but he is most celebrated for his 'Essay on Deformity,' wherein he rallies his own imperfection in this respect with much good-humour. 'Bodily deformity,' he observes, 'is very rare ; and among 558 gentlemen of the house of commons, I am the only one disfigured in shape by nature. Thanks to my worthy constituents, who never objected to my person ; and I hope never to give them cause to object to my conduct.' The following sensible remarks are from his essay : 'A deformed person should first be upon his guard against those frailties to which he is more particularly exposed ; and as Juvenal recommends all men to pray for a sound mind in a healthy body—*ut sit mens sana in corpore sano*—so would I add this petition, *ut sit mens recta in corpore curvo*,—for an upright mind in a crooked body. The deformed person, secondly, should bear the ridicule of the world like a man, forgive it like a Christian, and consider it as a philosopher. His triumph will be complete if he can exceed of his own pleasantry on himself ; for

give over when it sees itself outdone, and so will malice when it finds it has had no effect. The deformed person should, lastly, attempt the improvement of his mind, whose crookedness would be a worse matter than that of the body. The name of Socrates is as much sounded now as that of Cæsar, and his works, though he was deformed, still teach us. Let him say to himself, I am weakly and unable to serve my country in the field; let me then try to benefit her in the closet. Let me there write what may both improve myself and instruct others; and if I cannot, like a Hercules, go forth to rid the world of monsters, let me at least try to set upon those that especially infest myself. I may cleanse the Augean stable of my own heart; I may crush the hydra of vices which intral me; I may pursue virtue with all the energy required to come up with the stag of Ænoë; and I may encircle myself with the Amazonian girdle of Christian philosophy and contentedness, which can shield me at once from the darts of scorn and malevolence.' Such are the consolations offered by this worthy man to those who, like himself, cannot boast of regularity of form; but it may be yet more soothing to them to be assured that none but the most unfeeling and contemptible, the most irreligious and unjust, would ever dream of throwing ridicule upon their fellow-creatures, because of peculiarities which the dispensations of Providence have allowed. Let them reflect how much more easy it is to bear deformity, unaccompanied by pain, than the loss of sight, or hearing, or reason; let them remember that the habitations in which their souls are lodged, though not splendid are convenient; that they are but tenants of them for life, or more properly at will: and lastly, that their mis-called calamity has been an excellent, and perhaps merciful preparation (by its drawing them from the vanities of the world) for their soul's transference into those glorious and

unfleshy mansions which are 'eternal in the heavens.'

CHARLES ROLLIN (1661—1741), born at Paris, studied in the college of Plessis, of which he became rector, 1694. He distinguished himself by his restoration of the study of Greek, and was at length appointed rector of the university of Paris, 1720; but the disputes between the Jesuits and Jansenists, which he meddled with, occasioned his expulsion from the chair in two months. He thereupon devoted himself in retirement to the composition of his excellent works, 'The Ancient History of the Egyptians, Carthaginians, Babylonians, &c.,' and 'The Roman History'; the former of which is especially accurate, and elegantly written. He died, aged 80, 1741.

CARL VON LINNÆUS (1707—1778), was the son of a Swedish clergyman, and born at Roeskult. After an education at Upsal and Leyden, he settled at Stockholm as a physician; and he soon became so celebrated, that the king of Sweden made him a noble, 1757, and his successor, Gustavus III. doubled his pension, 1776, and settled on him a handsome estate. In a tour of Lapland, Linnæus noticed every thing which he might turn to account; and he then explored the mines of Sweden, and travelled attentively in Denmark, Germany, and Holland. A brief visit to England followed; and, on his return to Stockholm, he effected the establishment of a royal academy of sciences, and gave to the world his 'Systema Naturæ,' 'Genera Plantarum,' and other works, which, until the recent classification of the philosophical Cuvier, were regarded universally as text-books. This great man died, aged 71, 1778.

FLORA MACDONALD was the daughter of the Scottish laird, Macdonald of Milton, in the isle of South Uist (Hebrides), and had just left a boarding-school at Edinburgh when the insurrection of 1745 began. After taking leave of the Pretender at Portree, she was, on her return home, seized by the Hanoverian troops, and car-

ried by sea to London. During an imprisonment of many months, she was visited and interrogated by Frederick, prince of Wales, and other persons of distinction; and, on her enlargement, she was taken by lady Primrose, of Dunnipace, under her especial protection, until the Pretender's affair had ceased to be talked of. In 1750 she married Mr. Alexander Macdonald, son of that Macdonald of Kingsburgh who had aided her in furthering the escape of the prince. On the decease of her husband's father, she became the mistress of that house wherein the prince and herself had been so kindly received; and Dr. Johnson and his friend Boswell there visited her, 1778. In 1774 Macdonald and his heroic wife removed to North Carolina, having purchased an estate there; but the revolt of the American colonies disturbed them in the following year, and the husband of Flora Macdonald was necessarily on the side of old institutions and order. He was imprisoned as an enemy to liberty, but proved his love of it by escaping from gaol; and he after figured as captain in a regiment of 'North Carolina Highlanders.' At the conclusion of the war, the pair took ship for their native Hebrides; and after sustaining the attack of a French ship, a contest in which the heroine stood to the single gun of the vessel, they arrived safely at Skye. In that island Mrs. Macdonald died, aged 61, 1790; and she was wrapped, for a shroud, in one of the sheets in which prince Charles Edward had slept at Kingsburgh. She left five sons, who all served their king in a military capacity.

GIOVANNI BATTISTA CIPRIANI, (1727—1785), born at Pistoja, in Tuscany, after studying painting at Rome, came to England with sir William Chambers, 1758. He was a member of the Royal Academy at its foundation, 1769, and made much money by his numerous works, produced for the nobility and gentry of England. His paintings are mostly

at Houghton; and his drawings, from which Bartolozzi and others engraved, are spread about in various collections, and highly valued. He was especially celebrated for grace and elegance in the human figure; and his fancy whole lengths of ancient persons, such as Sappho, Anacreon, &c., are still highly appreciated. He died at Chelsea, aged 58, 1785.

BARON LUDVIG HOLBERG (1684—1754), called the Colossus of Danish literature, was born at Bergen in Norway, and left an orphan and poor by his father, who had risen from the ranks to be a colonel in the Danish army. Having received a free and not very superior education at Copenhagen, Ludvig turned tutor for bread; and, contriving to get to England, passed two years in poverty at Oxford. He next travelled with a rich Dane, his pupil, into Germany; and on another occasion contrived to proceed as far as Rome, for the most part on foot; and of his pedestrian tour back thence to Denmark, by which he recovered his strength (so far depressed when in the capitol, that he could hardly crawl), he has given an amusing account in his autobiography. On his return home, he astonished the Danes by his efforts in satirical poetry, and produced a masterpiece in the heroic-comic vein, styled 'Peder Paars,' which has obtained for him the title of the 'Danish Butler,' from its supposed resemblance to *Hudibras*. From 1723 to 1746 his days were occupied in dramatic composition, and no less than forty comedies came from his pen; in allusion to the excellence of which, a modern critic observes, 'there have been but three comic poets deserving the name—Plautus, Molière, and Holberg.' This is indeed, if true, great praise. His philosophical satire, entitled 'Niels Klim's Subterraneous Journey,' in the manner of Swift, places him on a level with the Irish dean, and even with Lucian; and indeed the annals of literature afford no parallel instance of a satiric author so

admirable, who was at the same time so universal. A History of Denmark, of the Church, and an Universal History, came from the same pen; and it has been well observed that, 'when Frederick V. of Denmark raised the author to the peerage, he only created a baron—whereas Holberg had created a national literature.' This gifted man died wealthy, and a bachelor, aged 69, 1754, leaving all his property to the Academy of Sorøe, instituted for the patriotic purpose, of preventing the Danish nobility from studying at foreign universities.

PHILIPPE DESTOUCHES (1687—1754), born of a good family, at Tours, entered the army at sixteen, and was present at the siege of Barcelona. From being found amongst a party of players in Switzerland, it is presumed he had lost the favour of his family: however this may be, the marquis de Paysieux, on reading a piece he had composed for his fellow actors, invited him to Paris, and encouraged him to write for the theatre there. His subsequent comedies of 'L'Ingrat,' 'Le Médisant,' and 'L'Irrésolu,' having brought him into general notice, the duc d'Orleans sent him with the abbé Dubois to England, as an assistant in the negotiations carrying on between the two courts; and when Dubois returned to France, the poet remained seven years as sole resident in England, and there married a woman of some property. On the death of the duc d'Orleans, Destouches retired to Milan, and, purchasing a small estate, produced his two best plays, 'Le Philosophe Marié,' and 'Le Glorieux,' the last by some thought equal to Molière. At the close of life, he turned his attention to the growing irreligion of the times; and, with a hope to check it, composed above a thousand epigrams against unbelievers. He died, aged 67, 1754. Destouches takes place after Molière and Regnard, to the former of whom he is inferior in truth and sentiment, and to the latter in vivacity and ease; but he is regarded as superior to both in

stage effect, propriety, and the power of reaching the pathetic, without the destruction of comic humour.

THE BROTHERS JUSSIEU.—These were three celebrated French botanists. *Antoine*, a physician, made a botanical tour in Spain and Portugal, whence he imported plants: he became professor at the Jardin du Roi, and died 1758. *Bernard* (1699—1777), also a physician, was demonstrator of botany at the Jardin du Roi, and was much noticed by Louis XV., who employed him to form a botanical garden at Trianon. He became a fellow of our Royal Society. *Joseph* (1704—1779) went to Peru, and remained thirty-six years in South America, studying its plants; respecting which he kept a diary, which was unfortunately lost on his passage home in his old age. The botanical system of the three is regarded in France as more correct than that of Linnæus.

MARIE FRANÇOIS AROUET DE VOLTAIRE (1694—1778), was son of a notary. He was born at Chatenay, near Paris, and received his education at the Jesuits' college in Paris; but instead of studying for the bar, he was always seen among a society of wits and epicureans. Being compelled to quit France in consequence of a broil with the chevalier de Rohan, he took refuge in England; where George I. enabled him to obtain subscribers sufficient to publish his 'Henriade,' the only epic poem which France can boast, and which is deservedly esteemed for its high sentiments, smooth versification, faithful delineations of character, and elegance of style. During similar periods of exile for his deistical publications, Voltaire supplanted the Cartesian philosophy (which had hitherto prevailed in France, and had undermined the Copernican theory of the universe), by establishing the Newtonian system. In 1750 he accepted Frederick the Great's invitation to reside at Berlin, with a pension of 22,000 livres; for which he was to devote two hours a day to

correcting the king's works. Here, however, he entered into the dispute between the two mathematicians, Maupertuis and Koenig; and being dismissed his office, he finally bought an estate at Ferney, near Geneva, a savage spot belonging to France, having a village with only fifty inhabitants. By his means the place became fertilized; and in a short time 1200 persons, principally watchmakers, established their manufacture there, exporting their labours all over the continent. There Voltaire afforded protection to the great niece of Corneille, and did much for the family of the unfortunate Calas. Frederick the Great, Catherine II. of Russia, and even the people of Paris, now courted him again; and at the great age of eighty-four he hastened to the capital, where, during the performance of his *Irene*, his bust was crowned in full theatre. The great excitement consequent on this visit, carried the philosopher to the grave in a few weeks after his arrival at Paris, 1778. Voltaire's chief talent lay in a capacity to turn every thing into ridicule. As a prose writer he was equal and unaffected; as a dramatic poet not inferior to Racine and Corneille; but as an historical narrator he was superficial and careless. Sunk in the sink of profligacy must have been Voltaire's mind, when he composed some of his works; and alike elevated must have been his tone when he wrote, in his *Henriade*,

'A ta faible raison garde-toi de te rendre—
Dieu t'a fait pour l'aimer, et non pour le
comprendre.'

And when, in reply to some one who had asked which he considered his best work, he beautifully answered, '*C'est le peu de bien que j'ai fait dans ma vie.*' His character has thus concisely been summed up: 'By turns he was the sententious moralist, and the grotesque buffoon; the imperturbable philosopher and the raving enthusiast; the flattering parasite and the envenomed satirist; the pinching miser and the prodigal

voluptuary; the modest scholar and the reckless wit; the humble Christian (for such a guise he could assume), and the blasphemous atheist.'

NINON DE L'ENCLOS (1616—1706), daughter of a gentleman of Touraine, being left mistress of a large fortune at fifteen, resolved, to the scandal of her sex, to pass life without restraint. Her beauty was great, and her talents of that high order, that Madame Maintenon tried every art to reform her, but in vain. The power of her natural beauty was indeed tragically illustrated by the often told adventure of one of her own sons, who, being brought up in ignorance of his birth, fell desperately in love with her, and when informed of his relation to the object of his affection, committed suicide, an event recorded by Le Sage in his '*Gil Blas*.' Ninon died at the age of 90, 1706; and it is instructive to remark, she was herself so conscious of having mistaken the road to genuine satisfaction, that she thus expresses herself in a letter to St. Evremond: 'Every body tells me I have less reason to complain of time than others (for she had preserved her charms to the last): however that be, if such a life were again proposed to me, I would rather hang myself than go through it.'

BERNARD DE FONTENELLE (1657—1757), son of an advocate in the parliament of Rouen, by a sister of Corneille, was born at Rouen. He early displayed considerable poetical talent; and, while 40 years secretary to the academy of sciences at Paris, published many works celebrated for their elegance, and delicacy of wit. No man more than Fontenelle deserved and enjoyed the respect and confidence of his contemporaries; and much is to be ascribed to his very sweet temper, which enabled him calmly to reach his 100th year; a circumstance remarkable, when it is known that, for the first five years of his existence, he was regarded too weakly to live. His decease occurred 1757. His '*Plurality of Worlds*,' '*Dialogues of*

the Dead,' and 'Eloges' delivered on the decease of members of the academy, are his most admired productions. One of his favourite sayings was 'that men in the mass are foolish and wicked; nevertheless we must live among them, and that with good-humour;' another, 'that a man should be sparing of superfluities to himself, that he might supply things necessary to others.'

FRANCESCO ALGAROTTI (1713—1764), son of a Venetian merchant, studied at Rome and Bologna; and on coming to Paris, published an extremely popular work in Italian, called 'Newtonianism for the Ladies,' inferior, however, to Fontenelle's 'Plurality of Worlds.' The author visited Prussia and Poland, and was some time counsellor of war in the latter court; after which he returned to Italy, and died suddenly at Pisa, 1764, aged 51.

GEORGE FREDERICK HANDEL (1684—1759), born at Halle, in Saxony, was son of a surgeon, who, to induce him to follow his profession, debarred him access to musical instruments. This severity, however, would seem to have determined young Handel at least to eschew Galen; and secretly acquiring that knowledge of the organ, which at the time was common amongst the young of both sexes in Germany, without reference to the study of music, he performed with such skill for his age (then eight) in the presence of the duke of Saxe Weisenfels on some chance occasion, that the duke obtained from his father permission to have him instructed regularly for his chapel. At nine, he composed a church service for voices and instruments; and after equalling his master at Halle, he passed to Berlin, where the king of Prussia witnessed and rewarded his astonishing powers. From Berlin he went to Hamburg; but the honours which he received excited the envy of other musicians, and one of them, as he was returning from the orchestra, made a violent push at

him with a sword. The wound would have proved fatal, 'had not Apollo,' says his historian, 'interposed,' and, by means of a music-book which he carried in his bosom, he was not stabbed mortally to the heart. At 14 he produced, while at Hamburg, 'Almeria,' his first opera, and it was repeated thirty successive nights. After visiting Florence, and Vienna, he came to England, 1710. Here his fame procured him friends; and he was flattered by the queen and the nobility; and his 'Rinaldo' showed how well he was entitled to the public favour. A pension of 200*l.* a year was settled on him, and he was appointed composer to the Haymarket theatre. On the accession of George I. his pension was doubled by the monarch; and from that period till his decease, he presided at the Haymarket and Covent Garden; at which latter place his oratorios were continued till within eight days of his death, which occurred in his 76th year, 1759. Some time before his decease, he became totally blind, and never heard his own air of 'Total Eclipse' in Samson, after that event, without extreme agitation. Handel's powers we can scarcely estimate; and while fugue contrivance and full score were respected, he was unrivalled. His instrumental compositions surpass all others in vigour, spirit, and invention; his choruses have not been equalled in grandeur and simplicity since the invention of counterpoint; and his vocal pieces to this hour are acknowledged to stand higher in the general estimation, for expression and propriety of adaptation, than any other productions of their class.

NICOLAS, COUNT ZINZENDORF (1700—1760) son of the chamberlain of the king of Poland, was born 1700, and is celebrated as the founder of the modern Moravians, or *Herrnhuters*. Having given leave to a leader of the Moravian brethren, named David, to settle with his followers on his estate, those poor people were soon

joined by vast numbers, who aided in building a village which they called *Hernhuth*. *Zinzendorf* hereupon drew up statutes for their management, and was constituted their bishop, 1736; and from this period the Moravian writers date the renewal of what they call 'the union of the brethren.' They profess to take the pure precepts of the gospel as the rule of their conduct; choose their ministers by lot; wash each others' feet: celebrate *agapæ*, or love-feasts; and address their worship exclusively to the Saviour. The worthy but eccentric count died 1760, aged 60.

PIERRE DE MAUPERTUIS (1695—1759), born at St. Maloes, quitted a military life for science, became a member of the French academy in Paris, and of the royal society in London. He accompanied the Prussian prince to the war against the Germans, was taken prisoner at the battle of *Molwitz*, and conveyed to Vienna; but he was soon set at liberty, and permitted to return to Berlin. He returned to Paris, but instead of settling there in the pursuit of science, went back to Berlin, and engaged in literary quarrels with *Koenig*, professor of philosophy, and *Voltaire*; the poignant satire of which latter drove him to seek refuge at the house of the *Bernouillis* at Basil, wherein he soon after died, 1759, aged 64. The physical labours of *Maupertuis* greatly tended to advance science: they are shown in his 'Figure of the Earth determined,' 'Figure of the Stars,' and other similar works. In his moral writings he displays himself a freethinker.

LOUIS FRANÇOIS ROUBILLIAC, born at Lyons in France, settled in England as a sculptor, 1720, and long stood there at the head of his profession; which, however is not saying much in his commendation, since the art at that time was at a lamentably low ebb. He was chiefly employed on sepulchral monuments; and those for John duke of Argyle

in Westminster-abbey, and for the duke and duchess of Montague at Boughton, are fine specimens of his skill. Lord Chesterfield, in speaking of him, said that all other sculptors were *stone-cutters* in comparison with *Roubilliac*, who died in London, 1762. The late Sir Francis Chantrey, deservedly at the head of his profession in England, has borne witness to the difficulties attendant upon the sculptor's rise. 'I came to London' said he on a public occasion, 'in 1802, and began to labour at sculpture; I never worked for any sculptor, and never had an hour's instruction from any such in my life; I established a studio as soon as I could afford it—that was eight years after I entered the metropolis—and during those years I never made 5*l.* in my profession. The bust by which I first got my reputation, I made for nothing—it was a bust of *Horne Tooke*; it went to the exhibition in model, for neither *Horne Tooke* nor I could afford to make it in marble. I got 12,000*l.* worth of commissions by that bust's exhibition; so that,' added the admirable artist and high-minded man, 'you see how uncertain the rise of a sculptor is.'

JOHN RYSBRAECK (1694—1770), son of a painter, was born at Antwerp, and came early in life to England; where he acquired considerable reputation, as well as profit, from the exercise of the art of statuary. Our cathedrals (especially Westminster-abbey) contain many fine specimens of his ability; amongst which the monuments of *Newton* and *Marlborough* are regarded as his chef d'œuvres. He died, aged 76, 1770. His father, *Peter Rysbraeck*, excelled in landscape; and the beauties of rural scenery, particularly trees, have rarely been depicted in a more chaste and captivating style than his.

DAVID HUME (1711—1776), born at Edinburgh, was intended for the law; but his small means drove him into business at Bristol. Disgusted with trade, he crossed to France, with a view, through the cheapness

of living there, to make his income answer his expenditure; but he soon found it necessary to seek employment, and acted first as an attendant on the insane marquis of Annandale, and then as the secretary of general St. Clair in his diplomatic visits to Vienna and Turin. Having amassed a little money by the good sale of his essays, and other first attempts at authorship, he returned to Scotland, and in 1754 began his 'History of England' with the Stuart reigns; and although the work was little regarded by the public, he extended it backwards till its completion, as a record of English events. Notwithstanding the partiality of his opinions, and the occasional licentious tendency of his principles, he at length saw his labour rewarded, and an independence secured. He, in 1760, accompanied lord Hertford as secretary of embassy to Paris, and was left there 1765 as *chargé d'affaires*; in 1767 he became under secretary of state to general Conway; and in 1769 he returned finally to Edinburgh, with an income of 1000*l.* a year, as he tells us, 'healthy, though stricken with years, and with a prospect of long enjoying life and ease.' In 1775 he was attacked with a disorder of the bowels, which soon terminated fatally, in his 66th year, August 25th. The talents of Hume must be acknowledged by all; but his philosophical scepticism, however ingeniously supported, unfitted him for the character of an historian, quite as much as it destroyed his title to the name of Christian.

WILLIAM HUNTER (1718—1783), born at Kilbride in the county of Lanark, turned his mind from divinity to medicine while at Glasgow university; and became first the pupil, and then the partner, of the celebrated Dr. William Cullen at Hamilton, 1737. In 1741 he came to London, where he was recommended to the notice of his countryman, Dr. James Douglas, who took him into his house, made him tutor to his son, and enabled him to improve himself by attending various lectures on phi-

losophy and medicine. The death of Douglas in 1742 left him his own master; and in the next year he presented to the Royal Society his 'Essay on the Structure and Diseases of Articulating Cartilages.' He succeeded Mr. Sharpe as lecturer to a society of surgeons in Covent-garden 1746, and was admitted member of the corporation of surgeons 1747, and acquired high obstetric reputation. In 1750 he obtained his doctor's degree from Glasgow, and in 1764 was appointed physician extraordinary to the queen. His practice was now so extensive, that he took Mr. Hewson as his assistant-lecturer and partner; but in 1770 this connexion was dissolved, and Hewson gave way to Mr. Cruikshank. In 1767 he was elected fellow of the Royal Society, and in 1768 was admitted into the Antiquarian Society, and appointed by the king anatomical professor. In 1781 he succeeded Fothergill as president of the London college of physicians, and was elected member of several foreign societies. Thus distinguished as a medical man, he acquired an ample fortune; but, with a commendable ambition, he wished to apply it to the noblest and most beneficial purposes. Having purchased some ground in Windmill-street, he there erected a spacious house, to which he removed in 1770 from Jermyn-street, and in which was a noble amphitheatre for the delivery of lectures, and a magnificent museum, enriched not only with his own valuable preparations, but by all other curiosities in the animal and fossil kingdoms which either favour or money could procure. Therein was also a treasure of Greek and Latin books, and a fine collection of coins. Of this valuable repository, whose cost was above 20,000*l.*, the use was permitted for 30 years to his nephew, Matthew Baillie, and Mr. Cruikshank; and afterwards to become the property of the university of Glasgow. The doctor's immortal work, 'The Anatomy of the Gravid Uterus,' will remain a striking

monument of his labour and application. He died, aged 65, 1783; and almost his last words, addressed to his friend Dr. Combe, were, 'If I had strength enough to hold a pen, I would write how easy and pleasant a thing it is to die.'

CONTEMPORARIES.—JOHN SEBASTIAN BACH, born at Eisenach, was son of a first-rate musician, and became organist successively at Weimar, Darmstadt, and Leipsic. His fame as a composer in the style of Handel induced Frederick the Great to invite him to Potsdam; where the king, on hearing of his arrival, abruptly quitted a concert to receive him, and, in order to try his skill, gave him the subject of an extemporaneous fugue, which he handled so scientifically as to elicit Frederick's greatest admiration. Bach published much organ music, all of a very superior description: he was afflicted some months before his death with blindness, and died 1750, aged 65. PETER BURMAN, born at Utrecht, was professor of history and Greek, first in that city, and subsequently at Leyden. He annotated on most of the Roman historians and poets, and his editions of authors are highly valuable. He died, aged 73, 1741. There was another *Peter Burman*, his relative, called 'the younger,' born at Amsterdam, who, in like manner edited Claudian and other Latin poets, and died, aged, 63, 1778. And *John Burman*, a physician of Amsterdam, related to the two former, was a good natural historian, and published excellent lists of the plants of Ceylon, Africa, and America, dying, 1779. GEORGE BENSON, born at Great Salkeld, Cumberland, was educated among the Socinians, and became one of their preachers, first at Abingdon, and then in London. Though a dissenter, he enjoyed the friendship of Hoadly, Herring, Butler, and other dignitaries of the church, and was remarkable for mildness in the midst of controversy. He wrote, besides controversial tracts, a 'Life of Christ,' 'On Prayer,' and a 'History of the Rise of Christianity,'

and died, aged 62, 1762. PIERRE BOUGUER, born in France, was son of Jean Bouguer, *hydrographer* (a foolish title for a designer of sea-charts; in plain words a *water-writer*, because he marks the bays, gulfs, creeks, tides, &c., of the sea in his maps) to the king. While a pupil of twelve years old at the Jesuits' college in Vannes, he publicly defeated the professor of geometry upon an abstruse proposition in that science, which occasioned the latter to resign his chair. On the death of his father, he was, from his advanced physical knowledge, elected his successor, though but fifteen; and his subsequent conduct seems to have justified the choice of so youthful an *hydrographier-royal*. In 1727, and the following years, he gained the prizes of the Royal Academy of Science, for improved methods of masting ships, taking the elevation of the stars at sea, and ascertaining the variation of the needle. In 1735, as pensioner-astronomer, he went, accompanied by Condamine, Jussieu, and Godin, to measure a degree of the Meridian among the Cordilleras of South America; and during the ten years he was so engaged, he was successful in making many discoveries not immediately connected with his voyage, concerning the expansion and contraction of metals, the reciprocation of the pendulum, and the mode of measuring the force of light. He died, aged 36, 1758. EPHRAIM CHAMBERS, born at Milton, Westmorland, of quaker parents, was apprenticed to Mr. Senex, the globe-maker in London; in whose house he compiled his 'Cyclopaedia,' or popular dictionary of the arts and sciences, which has served as the basis of many subsequent similar works, and which brought both fame and wealth to its compiler. He died, aged 46, 1740. ALEXIS CLAIBAULT, born at Paris, was chosen at the early age of eighteen an associate of the Academy of Sciences. He went with Maupertuis to Tornea in Lapland, 1736, to measure a degree of the Meridian,

in order to determine the figure of the earth, which he pronounced, in confirmation of Newton, an oblate spheroid or globe, flattened at the poles. Clairault wrote on comets, the moon, &c.; and his Elements of Algebra and Geometry are still highly valued in France. He died, 1765.

WILLIAM CHESELDEN, born at Somerby, Leicestershire, studied medicine, and became known by his lectures on anatomy at 22, in London. He was successful in operating for the stone, and gained extraordinary fame by enabling a youth of 14, who had till then been blind, to see. At length at the head of the surgical profession in the metropolis, he was consulted by Queen Caroline and the chief nobility, amassed a large fortune, and died, aged 64, 1752. His great work is 'The Anatomy of the Human Body.'

ROBERT DODSLEY, born at Mansfield, Notts, began life as a footman in lord Lowther's family, in which situation he indulged his natural taste for poetry, and wrote 'The Muse in Livery,' and 'The Toyshop'; the latter a dramatic piece which occasioned Pope to patronize him. From the subsequent success on the stage of that and his 'Miller of Mansfield,' Dodsley was enabled to commence bookseller in London; and after acquiring a handsome fortune, he retired from business in favour of his brother, and died, aged 60, 1764.

PHILIP DODDRIDGE, son of an oilman of London, was educated among the baptists, and became a preacher at Kibworth, Leicestershire. He succeeded Mr. Jennings as a schoolmaster at Hinckley; and removing the establishment soon after to Northampton, 1729, continued it there 21 years, till an attack of consumption induced him to visit Lisbon, where he died, aged 49, 1751. Dr. Doddridge was an amiable person, respected by those of the church as much as by his own party. His piety and learning are abundantly shown in his 'Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul,' his 'Family Expositor,' and other works.

ABRAHAM DEMOIVRE, born at Vitri, in Champagne, of protestant parents, was driven from his country by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and settled in London as a teacher of mathematics. Here he published his 'Doctrine of Chances, or a Method of calculating the Probabilities of Events at Play,' and other most ingenious and talented works; and so frequently was he accurate in his calculations, that Pope, in allusion to him, says, 'Sure as Demoisire, without rule or line.' He died, aged 86, 1754. OLOF VON DALIN, born in Holland, became royal librarian at Stockholm; and having in that capacity written 'The History of Sweden,' he was made preceptor to prince Gustavus, and finally chancellor of the Swedish court. He died, aged 55, 1763. JOHN ALBERT FABRICIUS, son of an organist at Leipsic, became a student of theology in that university; and after receiving ordination settled at Hamburg, and was made professor of rhetoric there. He took his doctor's degree in divinity at Kiel, and died, aged 68, 1736. Fabricius was the complete pioneer of literature, and published most valuable abstracts of the works of Greek, Latin, and other authors; and such was his acquaintance with books, that he was designated, 'Librarian of the Republic of Letters.' MARTIN FOLKES was son of a London barrister, and was educated at Clare-hall, Cambridge. Devoting himself to the study of antiquity, he was elected president of the Royal Society, 1740, on the resignation of sir Hans Sloane, and retained that honourable post till his decease. His numismatical knowledge was displayed in a book he published on the silver coin of the realm; and he died, aged 64, 1754. JAMES FOSTER, born at Exeter, was educated among the independents, but turned baptist, and had a congregation for 20 years in Barbican, London. He was an eloquent preacher, and popular among many who differed from him in tenets, and who filled all stations in

society. He attended lord Kilmar-nock to the scaffold 1746, and is said to have sunk gradually into melancholy from that period; dying, aged 66, 1758. JAMES GRIBBS, born at Aberdeen, was enabled by the Earl of Mar's pecuniary aid, to visit Rome, with a view to study the architectural excellences of Michael Angelo. On his return to Great Britain, 1710, he was much employed as a builder; and St. Martin's church, Charing-cross, the new buildings of King's college, and the senate-house, Cambridge, the Radcliffe library, Oxford, and the church of St. Mary-le-Strand, London, are his admirable works. He died, aged 69, 1754. THE GEL-LETS were two brothers. Christian, (1715—1769) was a German poet, who took holy orders at Leipsic, but gave up the clerical profession to devote himself entirely to tuition. He died professor of philosophy at Leipsic. Gellert, by the pure style, didactic remarks, and taste of his various comedies and poems, gave a tone to German Literature, which tended much to form the taste and direct the opinions of his age. *Christlieb*, his brother, was distinguished as a metallurgist, and long held the chief inspector's office of mines in Saxony. He made great improvements in science by his mineralogical researches, and was inventor of the process of parting metals by amalgamation. He died, 1795. JAMES GRAINGER, born at Dunse in Scotland, entered the army as a surgeon, and served under the Earl of Stair in Germany, till the peace of Aix-le-Chapelle, 1748, after which he took the diploma of M.D. and settled at Edinburgh. As his practice, however, was small, he devoted himself to the Muses; and his 'Ode to Solitude' procured him the friendship of Percy, afterwards bishop of Dromore, and Shenstone. He eventually settled as a physician at St. Kitt's, in the West Indies, and married the daughter of the governor of that isle. He died there, aged 43, 1767, of an epidemic fever. JAMES GRANGER, born in

Berkshire, and educated at Christchurch, Oxford, took holy orders, and obtained the vicarage of Shiplake, Oxon. Having employed himself in making a collection of portraits, he was led to compile a complete catalogue of engraved portraits of Englishmen; but he only partially executed the design in a 'Biographical History of England,' 1769, in which such lists of engravings as it contained were accompanied by short memoirs, enlivened with anecdotes, particularly illustrative of the modes of dress and manners which have prevailed in our country at different periods. Mr. Granger died, aged 62, 1776, in consequence of an apoplectic attack which had seized him while administering the sacrament in his church. THOMAS HERRING, born at Walsoken, Norfolk, left Jesus college, Cambridge, on his election to a fellowship at Corpus Christi. He took orders, and became chaplain to Fleetwood, bishop of Ely, and preacher at Lincoln's inn. The mode in which he executed and preached the academical sermons required by the latter appointment obtained (now) Dr. Herring much celebrity; and the post was, as is still usual, the stepping-stone to higher preferment. He was made dean of Rochester 1731, bishop of Bangor 1737, and translated to York 1743. On the breaking out of the Pretender's rebellion, 1745, he warmly espoused the Hanoverian cause, convened a meeting of the nobility and gentry at York, which subscribed 40,000*l.* to raise troops, and was rewarded, on the death of Potter, 1747, with the archbishopric of Canterbury. Only seven of this prelate's sermons, and a few of his letters have ever been published. He died, aged 66, 1757. FRANCIS HUTCHESON, son of a dissenting minister in Ireland, was born there, and completed his education at Glasgow. On his return to Ireland, he took charge of a small dissenting congregation in Dublin, and opened a private academy. The publication of his 'Inquiry into the Ideas of Beauty and Virtue'

recommended him to the notice of the learned ; and the lord lieutenant (lord Granville), archbishop King, and the primate Boulter, became his stanch patrons. In 1729 he left Ireland wholly for Glasgow, to be elected professor of philosophy in that university ; and there he died, aged 53, 1747. Dr. Hutcheson is regarded as the founder of a new system of morals, promulgated in a posthumous work, of which his son, Francis Hutcheson, a physician, was the editor. Based on the ethical notions of Lord Shaftesbury, the 'System of Moral Philosophy' of Hutcheson deduces all our moral ideas from an innate moral sense, which, like the instinct of brutes, leads us to perform certain actions ourselves, and to approve them in others, and is itself the main spring and foundation of all virtue. **FREDERIC HOFFMAN**, born at Halle in Saxony, was educated for the medical profession at Jena, and commenced practice as a physician at Minden. His father and other relatives had long been celebrated practitioners ; but he is allowed to have surpassed them all in ability, observation, and success. In 1684 he visited England, and formed an acquaintance with Robert Boyle and other learned men ; in 1688 he removed to Halberstadt as public physician ; and in 1693 he was appointed chief professor of medicine and natural philosophy in the newly-founded university of his native town. After a long life devoted to his profession, Hoffman died at Halle, aged 83, 1743. This talented man is chiefly to be remembered for his establishment of a new system of medicine, set forth in his '*Systema Medicinæ Rationalis*,' the leading feature of which is the doctrine of atony and spasm, afterwards made the foundation of a medical hypothesis by Brown. Much of the humoral pathology was retained by Hoffman, whose speculations are chiefly important as having given an impulse to future inquiries. **JOHANN HEINECCIUS**, born at Eisemberg, studied at Halle, and after oc-

cupying a professor's chair there in law and philosophy, settled, at the king of Prussia's invitation, at Frankfurt-on-the-Oder ; but in six years returned to Halle, and died there, aged 63, 1744. All his works are on law, civil law, the law of nations, and ancient jurisprudence, and are highly esteemed in Germany. His brother *Michael*, who died 1722, was author of '*The State of the Greek Church*,' an interesting book.—**DAVID HARTLEY** was son of a divine, and born at Armley, Yorkshire. At 15 he was sent to Jesus college, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow ; and scrupling respecting subscription to the articles, he relinquished all thoughts of the clerical for the medical profession. He settled as a physician, first at Newark, Notts, then at Bury, Suffolk, and lastly in London ; but his reputation is alone founded on his metaphysical work, '*Observations on Man, his Frame, his Duty, and his Expectations*,' wherein he gives the outlines of connected systems of physiology (in its limited sense, as applied, not to natural bodies in general, and their various affections, motions, and operations, but simply to the constitution and structure of the human body), mental philosophy, and theology. His physiology is built on the untenable hypothesis of nervous vibrations, and is so far wholly inconsistent with the inferences to be drawn from the modern discoveries of science ; but his metaphysical speculations, especially his adoption and illustration of the doctrine of association, have greatly tended to elucidate the phenomena of intellectual philosophy. As a physician, Dr. Hartley lowered himself by lauding a Mrs. Stevens's quack medicine, consisting of soap and lime-water, as a cure for the stone, whereby she obtained from parliament a grant of 5000*l.* ; and to prove his faith in the specific, he himself took as much of the compound as contained 2 cwt. of soap, and yet died of the stone, aged 52, 1757. **STEPHEN HALES**,

grandson of the first baronet of that name, was born at Bekesbourne, Kent, and completed his studies at Benet (Corpus Christi) college, Cambridge, of which he was elected a fellow. He displayed a great taste for natural philosophy, was the first to invent a brass orrery to demonstrate the planetary motions, and employed much time in the construction of ventilators for ships and prisons. He took holy orders, and the degree of D.D.; but though offered higher preferment, he contented himself with the living of Teddington, Middlesex, and that of Farrington, Hants. He died, aged 84, 1761. **JOHN FREDERICK HELVETIUS**, was of a noble family of Anhalt, and settling in Holland, became physician to the States-general and prince of Orange. Whether this means that he had the privilege of physicking the whole parliament of the revolted Netherlanders is nowhere shown. He died, aged 82, 1707. His son *Adrian*, also a physician, obtained great reputation by staying an epidemic dysentery at Paris; and Louis XIV. ordering him to name the medicine he had used for the purpose, he declared it to be *ipecacuanha*, and received a thousand louis d'ors from the parliament. He died 1721, aged 65. *John Claude*, son of *Adrian*, became physician to Louis XV., after curing him of a dangerous affection in his infancy. He wrote on the animal economy, was a benevolent character, and died aged 70, 1755. *Claude Adrian*, son of *John Claude*, and most remarkable of his family, was born at Paris, and educated under the famous father *Porée* at the college of *Louis-le-Grand*. His subsequent friendship with *Voltaire* and *Montesquieu* led to his composition of '*De l'Esprit*,' a book intended to confound virtue and vice, and which, on the ground of its degrading human nature by asserting man to be the mere creature of animal sensibility, was condemned by the parliament. The author was even obliged to resign his post of *maître d'hôtel* to the queen, and nar-

rowly escaped prosecution. The philosopher hereupon visited England 1764, and in 1765 went to Prussia, where *Frederick the Great*, the patron of sceptics, received him with open arms. On his return to France he lived a retired and highly benevolent and beneficent life on his estate at *Voré*, where he died, aged 56, 1771. The '*De l'Esprit*' of *Helvetius*, and its posthumous sequel, the '*Treatise on Man*,' both build on the principle that all men well organized have the natural power of acquiring the most exalted notions; and that the different genius observable in them, depends on the various circumstances which surround them, and on the different educations they have received. Paradoxical as is this position, the author shows himself to be acquainted a good deal with the cunning of the human heart, and accordingly lays open its chicanery with an unsparing hand; but his atheistical and anti-social tenets must ever be regarded with aversion—among the fertile sources as they were, first of the demoralization of his countrymen, and eventually of that terrible convulsion which deluged France with her people's blood. **JOHN HILL**, son of a clergyman, practised as an apothecary in Westminster, but, on marrying, abandoned his profession to live by his pen. His translation of '*Theophrastus's Treatise on Gems*,' obtained him the patronage of the learned; and his employment in reviews, &c. rendered him at length so easy in his circumstances, that he boastfully took the diploma of M. D. at *St. Andrew's*, and assumed the language and equipage of a man of fashion. A paper-war with *Fielding*, however, drove him from novel and play writing to the invention of medical nostrums; and essences, balsams, and other panaceas were promulgated by him, and, with the copyright of his works, afforded him 2000*l.* a year. He now undertook a pompous and voluminous '*System of Botany*,' which occasioned the king of Swe-

den to knight him; and he died, aged 59, 1775. **WILLIAM HEWSON**, born at Hexham, Northumberland, was assistant to, and joint-lecturer on anatomy with, Dr. Wm. Hunter, from 1764 to 1770. A dispute in the latter year occasioned a separation; but Hewson continued his experimental inquiries relative to the lymphatic and absorbent vessels in birds and fishes, with a view, as a comparative anatomist, to benefit his own species. Three volumes of his 'Experimental Inquiries' were published, and are still in high favour, in a Latin translation in Germany. The talented author died through wounding himself in dissecting a putrid subject, at the age of 35, 1774. **NICOLAS LOUIS DE LA CAILLE**, born at Rumigni, in France, became the pupil of Cassini, and, with DeThury, projected the meridian line extending from the Paris observatory to the extremities of the country. In 1739 he was elected professor of mathematics in the college of Mazarin; and in 1750 he went to the Cape of Good Hope, to examine the stars of the southern hemisphere; of 10,000 of which, in the course of two years, he determined the exact position. The whole of his remaining life was employed in the service of plane astronomy, mathematics, and navigation; but unfortunately a malignant fever terminated his labours in his 48th year, 1762. His works consist of several volumes, and are admirable for clearness, accuracy, and precision. **GEORGE LORD LYTTELTON**, eldest son of Sir Thomas, was born at Hagley, Worcestershire, and educated at Eton, and Christ-church, Oxford. After making the great tour, he was elected a member of parliament, and in 1737 became secretary to the prince of Wales, then the head of the opposition. In this capacity he drew the prince's attention to learned men, and obtained his patronage of Pope, Thomson, Mallet and other poets. After bewailing the loss of his wife, the sister of lord Fortescue, in a celebrated 'Monody,'

he married, 1749, the daughter of sir Robert Richey. In 1755 he was made chancellor of the exchequer; but, unfitted for business, he was happy to retire from political turmoil with a peerage 1757, and henceforth devoted himself to literature. In 1764 he published his elaborate 'History of Henry II.,' which had occupied him 20 years in the compilation. He had previously given to the world 'Observations on the Conversion and Apostleship of St. Paul,' to convince it of his abandonment of certain sceptical notions which had clung to him in youth; and it has been well observed, that infidelity will never be able to refute his admirable arguments. He died, aged 64, 1773. His son, *Thomas Lord Lyttelton*, was remarkable for his dissipated conduct, and died under singular circumstances. He affirmed he had seen in a dream a young woman habited in white, who told him he should die in three days. The third day arrived, and his lordship, engaged in a convivial party, observing jocularly to his friends 'that he thought he should jockey the ghost.' In the course of the evening, however, he was seized with a faintness; and being carried from the dining-room to his bedchamber, he expired there in a few hours, aged 35, 1779. *Charles Lyttelton*, third son of sir Thomas, and brother of Lord Thomas, became a barrister, after an education at Eton, and University college, Oxford. He afterwards took holy orders, in 1747 was made dean of Exeter, and in 1748 bishop of Carlisle. He had a great taste for antiquities, and contributed many excellent papers to the collection entitled 'Archæologia.' He died, aged 54, 1768. **PIERRE DE MARIVAUX**, born at Paris, was of a good family, and inheriting a handsome fortune, devoted himself to literature. He wrote many comedies, but it is by his novels that he is known in foreign countries, of which 'Le Paysan Parvenu' and 'Marianne' are regarded the best.

He died much esteemed for his amiable character, aged 75, 1763. **MICHAEL MATTHEIAE**, born in London, was of French extraction. After an education at Westminster-school, and Christ-church, Oxford, he was chosen second master of Westminster-school, 1696; but relinquishing the post 1699, he from that time devoted himself to literature and private tuition, and was patronised by the first earl of Oxford and his son. He is chiefly known as a classical editor; and his editions of various Greek and Latin authors have long been esteemed for their accuracy. He died, aged 79, 1747. **LUIGI MURATORI**, born at Vignola in Modena, took holy orders, and became celebrated for his bounty to the poor. As librarian and archivist to the duke of Modena, he was drawn to make several valuable collections; the chief of which are 'Rerum Italicarum Scriptores ab anno 500 ad 1500,' 27 vols. folio, and 'Annali d'Italia,' 1744—1749, in 12 vols. 4to. The indefatigable author died, aged 78, 1750. **PETER DE MUSCHENBROECK**, born at Utrecht, became professor of natural philosophy in the college of that city, and visiting England, was elected a fellow of the Royal Society. He is chiefly known by his talented works, the 'Elementa Physicæ,' and 'Compendium Physicæ Experimentalis;' and he died at Leyden, aged 69, 1761. **COLIN MACLAURIN**, born near Inverary, in Scotland, obtained the mathematical chair in the Marischal college, Aberdeen, and after travelling on the continent with the son of lord Polwarth, was elected to the like chair at Edinburgh; where his lectures contributed much to raise the character of that university, as a school of science. He actively engaged in aiding the fortification of Edinburgh, when the Pretender invaded Scotland, 1745; but on the entry of the Stuart party, he fled to York. He died 1746, aged 48. Maclaurin is celebrated for his treatise on Flux-

ions, when bishop Berkeley had made a formidable attack on that system; and he is admitted to have made the most satisfactory defence (of all who replied to the prelate) of the principles of limiting ratios. The professor's son, *John*, became a Scottish judge, took the nominal title of Lord Dreghorn, and died, aged 62, 1796. **TOBIAS MAYER**, born at Maspach in Wurttemberg, began very early the construction of mathematical instruments (his father being a teacher of geometry), and in 1751 was chosen mathematical professor in the university of Göttingen. He invented several useful instruments for the more exact measurement of angles on a plane, and obtained from the English board of Longitude, for his theory of the moon, and astronomical tables and precepts, the present of 3000*l*. He died, exhausted by his labours, aged 39, 1762. **ALEXANDER MONRO**, of Scottish descent, was born in London, and, after travelling on the continent to observe the hospital practice, settled at Edinburgh as a surgeon, and was appointed anatomical demonstrator to the company of surgeons there, 1719. He established his reputation as an anatomist by a treatise on Osteology, which passed through many editions, and has been translated into most European languages; and to him the university of Edinburgh is mainly indebted for its present high character as a school of medical science. He died, aged 70, 1767, leaving two sons: *Alexander*, a celebrated anatomist, and writer on the Nervous System, who died 1817, and *Donald*, a medical practitioner in the army, who wrote on the means of preserving the health of soldiers, and died 1802. **PHILIP MILLER**, born in Scotland, was educated by his father, gardener to the Apothecaries' Company at Chelsea, to succeed him in his situation, which he did 1722. Obtaining an introduction to the great Linnæus, he adopted that botanist's plan of classification, and

became the best practical gardener in England. His 'Gardener's Calendar' and similar works are well known. He died, aged 80, 1771. JEAN NOLLET, born at Pimbré in France, became experimental lecturer to the duke of Savoy, and afterwards to the French royal family. His most popular work is 'Leçons du Physique Experimentale;' and he died, aged 69, 1770. CLAUDE ST. NON, born in Paris, is only known by his splendid work 'Voyage Pittoresque de Naples et de Sicile.' He died, aged 63, 1791. THOMAS PARKER, lord Parker, afterwards created earl of Macclesfield, was made lord chancellor 1718, after earl Cowper; and after holding the post several years, was accused of corrupt practices 1725, in selling the place of master in chancery, and fined 30,000. The proceeding is said to have originated in the displeasure of the prince of Wales, afterwards George II., at an opinion of the earl's during a dispute between the prince and his father, regarding the guardianship of the former's children. The earl died 1732, and was succeeded by his son *George*, second earl, who, as president of the royal society, was an active promoter of the act of parliament which reformed the calendar and introduced the New Style into England, 1752. Earl George died 1766. JOHN PORTER, son of a linendraper at Wakefield, Yorkshire, left the grammar-school of his native town for University college, Oxford, and subsequently distinguished himself as a classical tutor, while fellow of Lincoln. His 'Archæologia Græca, or the Antiquities of Greece,' established his fame at once, indispensable as the work is to this hour to every classical student. In 1704 he became chaplain to archbishop Tenison, and soon after to queen Anne; in 1715 was raised to the see of Oxford; and in 1737, on the death of Dr. Wake, was advanced to the primacy. Archbishop Potter sustained his high dignity with great credit to the period

of his decease, aged 73, 1747. JOHN PERUSCH, born at Berlin, became one of the soundest theoretical musicians the world has ever produced. In 1702 he came to England, and here became known as an adapter of operas for Drury-lane theatre: the airs of the 'Beggar's Opera' are his composition. Though he obtained with his wife, Signora de l'Epine, 10,000*l.*, he continued to follow music as a profession, took his degree of Mus. D. at Oxford, and died, aged 84, 1752. ANTOINE PREVOT-D'EXILES, born in Artois, quitted the Jesuits' society to bear arms, and as an officer, freely indulged his natural taste for gallantry. He next turned monk among the Benedictines of St. Maur; but quitted the order, 1729, to apply to authorship for support in Holland. His first work 'Mémoires d'un Homme de Qualité, qui s'est retiré du Monde,' which he was so capable of planning, brought him both money and reputation; and his success caused him to turn abbé, and attach himself (as chaplain!) to the prince de Condé at Paris. He now wrote or translated a vast number of books. His death was somewhat tragical. Some peasants found him in a fit of apoplexy in the wood of Chantilly; and an ignorant magistrate being called in, ordered as ignorant a surgeon immediately to dissect the abbé, to ascertain the cause of his apparent death. A loud shriek from the victim caused the operator to see his error; and though the instrument was withdrawn, it had pierced a vital part, and the abbé expired. This occurred in his 67th year, 1763. As an original writer, Prevot is most distinguished by his novels, wherein history is embellished, without much injury, by romantic fictions. His best production in this way is 'Histoire de Marguerite d'Anjou.' GEORGE PSALMANAZAR, the assumed name of a literary impostor, was born in the south of France; and after an education among the Jesuits, Franciscans, and Dominicans, acted as a private tutor. He soon quitted a pro-

fession so ill-suited to his views, and engaged in extraordinary adventures. Having stolen the habit of a pilgrim from a church, he roved about in that character, subsisting on charity; he next descended to the condition of a common vagrant; and lastly conceived the project of professing himself a Japanese convert to Christianity. As he did not find the latter scheme profitable enough, he adopted the more romantic character of a heathen native of the isle of Formosa, affecting to speak 'the Formosan tongue'; and a needy divine, named Innes, meeting him in Flanders, and detecting the cheat, persuaded him to keep up the mockery by declaring himself a convert to the church of England. The pair hereon came to England; and Innes had the effrontery to present the impostor to bishop Compton and others, who rewarded his zeal for proselytism with church-preference! Psalmanazar hereon published the church catechism in his newly-invented Formosan language, together with a history of Formosa, which the gullibility of the public allowed to run through two editions. The knave was studying at Oxford, whither he had been sent by his credulous patrons among the clergy, when his imposture became clearly manifest; and deserted now by those he had deceived, he became a writer to the London booksellers, and eventually drew up an autobiographical memoir, in which he expressed contrition for the deceptions he had practised. He died, aged 84, 1763; and his real name has never transpired. ZACHARY PEARCE, son of a distiller in Holborn, was educated at Westminster-school, and Trinity college, Cambridge. On taking orders, the earl of Macclesfield, pleased with his papers in the 'Spectator' and 'Guardian,' obtained him the deanry of Winchester, 1739; and in 1748 he was made bishop of Bangor; whence he was translated to Rochester, with the deanry of Westminster, 1756. This prelate was noted for his disinterestedness, piety,

and classical learning; his chief work, beyond controversial tracts, is his 'Commentary on the Evangelists, and Acts.' He died, aged 84, 1774. WILLIAM PULTENEY, descended of an ancient family, was educated at Westminster-school, and Christchurch, Oxford; and when queen Anne visited the university, he addressed to her majesty a congratulatory speech on the occasion. After travelling abroad, he was elected a member of parliament, joined the whigs, and under George I. became secretary at war. A dispute with sir Robert Walpole caused his removal to the opposition; when he joined lord Bolingbroke in conducting the anti-ministerial journal, 'The Craftsman.' In 1731 he fought a duel with lord Hervey, which gave offence to king George II., who removed him from the office of privy-councillor, and from the magistracy; but this only served to increase his popularity as the leader of opposition, and he at length succeeded in procuring the resignation of his rival, Walpole, 1741. The party with which he had acted then came into power, and he was himself raised to the peerage, as earl of Bath; but from that moment his favour with the people ceased. The fact is, there was nothing very noble in the character of the earl; and, bred in the most ungenerous principles, he accumulated an unusually large fortune, before receiving his title, by a parsimony which fully entitles him to the name of 'Miser.' In writing to thank the elder Colman, who had sent him some trifling present, he observed, 'that he knew not the person for whom he had ever thought it worth his while to make himself a guinea poorer,'—a fit inscription for the niggard's tomb. He died, aged 82, 1764. FRANÇOIS QUESNAY, born near Paris, became physician to Madame de Pompadour, mistress of Louis XV., and, through her interest, to the king also. Disinterested and guileless as he was in character, he became in some way the leader of the political sect of econo-

mists, by the influence of whose principles the French Revolution was hurried on. Quesnay, however, had no notion of so terrible a convulsion being connected with his proceedings; and Louis simply regarded his speculations as harmless hypotheses, and called him his 'penseur' (thinker). Quesnay wrote on the animal economy, besides surgical and political tracts, and died, aged 80, 1774. JAMES QUIN was son of an Irish barrister. His father had unfortunately married a supposed widow, whose husband, after a long absence, returned and claimed her; on which account Quin, who was the offspring of the connexion, was pronounced illegitimate, and, upon his father's decease, 1710, was left unprovided for. Having recourse hereupon to the stage for a subsistence, he appeared on the Dublin boards 1715, and soon after at Drury-lane; and in 1717 he removed to the Lincoln's-inn theatre, where he continued 17 years, and gradually acquired celebrity in grave and dignified tragedy. Cato, Coriolanus, and Zanga, were regarded his best characters; though he made a respectable figure in such representations of comic humour, as Falstaff and sir John Brute. In 1735 he was induced by Fleetwood to return to Drury-lane, on such terms as no actor had before received; and he retained the pre-eminence until the appearance of Garrick in 1741. The success of the latter soon eclipsed and much annoyed him; and when, in 1747, he was engaged at Covent-garden with Garrick, the evident preference of the public for his rival, caused him gradually to retire from the stage. After the death of the poet Thomson, he appeared in his Coriolanus, and spoke a prologue, written on the occasion, by lord Lyttelton, with a sensibility that did him honour; and his last performance was Falstaff, for the benefit of his friend Ryan, 1733, in which character he is supposed never to have been excelled. On quitting the stage, he took up his abode at Bath, where

his conviviality and fondness for the bottle led to two or three hostile encounters, in one of which he killed his antagonist. He was otherwise manly, generous, and sensible; and his deliverance of Thomson from an arrest by a spontaneous present of 100*l.*, though then personally unknown to him, has often been told to his credit. He died, aged 73, 1766; and Garrick, once his rival, and afterwards his friend, wrote the epitaph for his tomb in Bath cathedral. BENJAMIN ROSE, son of a Bath tailor, became a teacher of mathematics, and rendered himself known by a treatise styled 'New Principles of Gunnery;' wherein he stated his experiments relative to the force of gunpowder, and the resistance of the air. He afterwards drew up the account known as 'Anson's Voyage round the World,' which became one of the most popular books in our language. The East India Company made him their engineer-general; but he died soon after receiving the appointment, at Fort St. David's, aged 44, 1751. THOMAS SIMPSON, born at Market-Bosworth, Leicestershire, refused to follow his father's business of a stuff-weaver, and leaving Bosworth, took lodgings at the house of a tailor's widow at Nuneaton. A pedler having lent him some mathematical and astrological books, he studied them so deeply as to turn astrologer himself; but one of his predictions driving a young woman out of her mind, he removed to Derby, and thence to London, in which latter city he worked as a weaver in the morning, and taught mathematics at night. His publication of 'A new Treatise of Fluxions' brought him into notice; he was made professor of mathematics at Woolwich, and numerous excellent works on algebra, geometry, &c., together with 'The Lady's Diary,' came from his pen. He died, aged 50, 1761. ROBERT SIMSON, born in Ayrshire, took his degrees in medicine at Glasgow, and filled during nearly 50 years the mathematical

chair in that university. His translation of Euclid superseded all former elementary works of geometry, and his work on Conic Sections was equally successful. He died, aged 81, 1768. His brother *Thomas* was professor of medicine and anatomy at St. Andrew's, and author of an essay on muscular motion, and other physiological works. *ROBERT SMITH*, born at Newcastle-on-Tyne, was educated at Trinity college, Cambridge, took holy orders, and succeeded Dr. Bentley as master. He was appointed mathematical master to William, duke of Cumberland, and wrote two talented works, the one on optics, and the other on the philosophy of musical sounds. He died, aged 78, 1768. *DANIEL WATERLAND*, born at Wasely, Lincolnshire, completed his studies at Magdalene college, Cambridge, of which he was elected master, 1713. He was chaplain to George I.; and at his decease held the archdeaconry of Middlesex, a canonry at Windsor, and the vicarage of Twickenham. His 'Vindication of Christ's Divinity,' against Dr. Samuel Clarke, 'History of the Athanasian Creed,' and 'Importance of the Doctrine of the Trinity,' are all sound works, and display him the sensible champion of orthodoxy against Hoadly, Tindal, Conyers Middleton, and others. He died, aged 57, 1740. *ROBERT WHYTT*, born at Edinburgh, studied medicine at St. Andrew's, and became professor of that science in the university of his native city, and first physician to the king in Scotland. He wrote various medical tracts, and died, aged 52, 1766. *GILBERT WEST*, born at Wickham, Kent, was educated at Eton, and Christ-church, Oxford, and obtained a commission in a cavalry regiment. On marrying he quitted the army, and settled in his native town; but he afterwards obtained, through the patronage of Mr. Pitt, subsequently Earl of Chatham, the post of clerk to the privy council, and the treasurership of Chelsea college. The death of his only son, however, destroyed his happiness,

and a paralytic affection was the consequence, of which he died, aged 50, 1756. He obtained the degree of L.L.D. from the university of Oxford, as a compliment to his merit in producing his celebrated 'Observations on the Resurrection,' 1747. *THOMAS WOOLSTON*, born at Northampton, was son of a tradesman there; and completing his education at Sidney college, Cambridge, took holy orders. Having imbibed a fondness for allegorical interpretations of Scripture, through reading the works of Origen, he published while at Cambridge 'The Old Apology for the Truth of the Christian Religion against the Jews and Gentiles revived,' wherein he laboured to show that all the acts of Moses were typical of Christ and his Church, and rather such than realities. His curious work, intended as an attack on his fellow-clergy, inquiring whether the quakers do not come nearest to the primitive Christians, occasioned him to lose his college fellowship; soon after which he became positively sceptical, and began asserting that the miracles of Christ, like the works of Moses, were figurative, and never actually wrought. He was prosecuted for blasphemy, fined 100*l.*, and soon after carried off by an epidemic disorder, aged 64, 1739. *JOHN WINCKELMANN*, son of a Brandenburg shoemaker, became professor of belles-lettres at Sechausen, and visiting Rome, was made keeper of the pope's cabinet of antiquities, having recently embraced the Romish faith. His chief work was 'The History of Art among the Ancients.' He was assassinated at an inn in Trieste, by a wretch to whom he had shown some valuable coins, in his 51st year, 1768; but the murderer was seized with the booty on his person, and executed on the wheel. *CHRISTIAN WOLFF*, born at Breslau, studied at Jena and Leipsic, and took holy orders. The philosopher Leibnitz, however, induced him to relinquish theology for mathematics, and he was elected to the chair of that science at Halle, 1707.

A controversy which he originated by ridiculously attempting to draw parallels between the principles of Confucius and of Christianity, occasioned the theological faculty to complain of him to the king of Prussia; who, on the score of his disseminating dangerous principles, ordered his departure from the Prussian dominions in two days, on pain of death. Retiring to Marpurg, the king of Sweden obtained him the mathematical chair of that place; but on the accession of Frederick the Great, he was recalled to Halle, and became chancellor of that university. In 1745 the elector of Bavaria, without solicitation, raised him to the dignity of a baron of the empire; and he died, aged 75, 1754. Wolff's works, metaphysical and physical, are very voluminous; and though he failed in establishing a thoroughly new arrangement of science, moral and intellectual, he must be allowed the praise of very high talents. He possessed a clear and methodical understanding, which, by long exertion in mathematical investigations, was particularly fitted for the employment of digesting the several branches of knowledge into regular systems. PETER THE WILD BOY was a youth found in a savage state in the woods of Hanover, being then about twelve years old, 1726. From the remains of a shirt-collar about his neck, it was presumed he had not been many years exposed by his brutal parents. He was brought to England 1727, and placed at a farmhouse at Northchurch, Herts; but neither care nor imitation could ever make him articulate words, though he was very tractable. The government generously allowed a pension of 35*l.* per year for his support; and he died, aged about 72, 1785. JEDIDIAH BUXTON, born in Derbyshire, seemed intuitively to have a knowledge of the relative proportions of numbers, their powers, and denominations; being otherwise so ignorant as to be unable either to read or write. He was once asked how many cubical eighths of an inch there are in a

body, whose three sides are 23,145,789 yards, 5,642,732 yards, and 54,965 yards; and sitting with his hand over his eyes, in the presence of 100 labourers, he produced in five hours the exact answer, without putting down the figures. When taken to see Garrick play Richard III., he employed himself in counting the number of words the great actor uttered, and in numbering the steps of the dancers, seeming to care little otherwise for the entertainment. He died 1774, aged seventy. [A youth named ZERAH COLBURN, an American, evinced the same natural acquaintance with numbers in the early part of the present century; and the author on several occasions witnessed his speedy solution, in like manner, of questions requiring far greater exertion of memory and intellect than that propounded to Buxton. He even by a mental calculation discovered a numerical error of the French mathematicians, which Euler himself detected only after long and profound study. He was asked the square root of 106,929; and before the question could be written down, replied 327. With equal facility he gave 645 as the cube of 268,336,125. When proposed that he should name the factors of the number 171,395, he replied without hesitation that the following were the only ones, $34,279 \times 5,24,485 \times 7,2905, \times 59, 2065 \times 83, 4897, \times 85,581 \times 295$, and 415×413 . When asked to give the factors of 36,083, he replied it had none, as is the fact, it being a prime number. Colburn, after being sent by the generosity of a nobleman to Westminster-school, where he did little, attempted the stage, but is now settled as a preacher amongst the methodists in his native America. GEORGE BINDER, a youth of similar powers, has a situation in a public office, where his talent is turned to a good account; but it is singular that numerical calculations alone seem within the scope of their powers: in mathematical science, neither have been able to

do any thing extraordinary.] **WILLIAM DEATH**, an English seaman, honourably known in 1756. Perhaps history cannot afford a more remarkable instance of desperate courage, than that which was exerted in December, 1756, by the officers and crew of an English privateer, called the *Terrible*, under the command of captain William Death, equipped with 26 guns, and manned with 200 sailors. On the 23d of the month, captain Death engaged and made prize of a large French ship from St. Domingo, after an obstinate battle, in which he lost his own brother and 16 seamen. He then with 40 men secured his prize, which contained a valuable cargo, and directed his course to England; but in a few days he had the misfortune to fall in with the *Vengeance*, a privateer of St. Maloes, carrying 36 large cannon, with a complement of 360 men. Their first step was to attack the prize, which was easily retaken; and then the two ships bore down upon the *Terrible*, whose mainmast was shot away by the first broadside. Notwithstanding this disaster, the *Terrible* maintained such a furious engagement against both, as can hardly be paralleled in the naval annals of Britain. The French commander and his second were killed, with two-thirds of his company; but the gallant Death, with the greater part of his officers, and almost his whole crew, having met with the same fate, his ship was boarded by the enemy, who found no more than 26 persons alive, 16 of whom were mutilated by the loss of leg or arm, and the other 10 grievously wounded. The ship herself was so shattered, that she could scarcely be kept above water; and the whole exhibited a scene of blood, horror, and desolation. The victor herself lay like a wreck on the surface; and in this condition made shift with great difficulty to tow the *Terrible* into St. Maloes; where she was not beheld without astonishment. The adventure was no sooner known

in England, than a liberal subscription was raised for the support of Death's widow, and that part of the crew which survived the engagement. In this, and in almost every other sea-rencounter that happened within the same war, the superiority in skill and resolution was ascertained to the British mariners. Even when they fought against great odds, their courage was generally crowned with success; and that rise in naval power and influence may be said at that juncture to have commenced, which came to the highest pitch of pre-eminence towards the close of the century, and obtained for England not only the title, but *the rights* of The Ocean's Queen. **JAMES KEITH** (1696—1758), field-marshal of Prussia, was the younger son of William, earl marshal of Scotland. He was educated under Ruddiman, and intended for the law; but in the rebellion he joined the Pretender, and was wounded at the battle of Sheriffmuir, and then fled to France. After travelling through Italy, he became in 1717, acquainted with the czar Peter; but refusing to enter into his service, he went to Madrid, where he obtained a commission in the Irish brigade. He eventually, however, went to Russia, and engaging in the service of the czarina, distinguished himself against the Turks and Swedes, as well as in negotiations; but becoming suddenly dissatisfied, he left Petersburg for Berlin, where the king of Prussia made him governor of his capital, and field-marshal. He gained so strongly the confidence of that monarch, that he was his counsellor in the cabinet, and his companion in his relaxations; and he attended him in his travels through Germany, Poland, and Hungary. After distinguishing himself as a warrior and politician in the service of his new master, he was killed at the battle of Hochkerchen, 1758, in his 63d year. **PETER KING** (1669—1734), chancellor of England, was born at Exeter. His father, who was a grocer, intended him for his business; but he was

advised by his maternal uncle, Mr. Locke, who left him half his library at his death, to study at Leyden; and afterwards he entered at the Inner Temple. Raised by superior abilities to eminence, he obtained a seat in the house of commons in 1699, for Beeralston, Devon. But though high in the law, he did not forget literary pursuits; his 'Inquiry into the constitution, discipline, unity, &c. of the Primitive Church,' appeared in 1692; and in 1702, he published the 'History of the Apostles' Creed' with critical observations. In 1708 he was made recorder of London, and knighted by Anne: the next year he was one of the managers of the commons against Sacheverell; and at the accession of George I. he was made chief justice of the common pleas. In 1725 he was created a peer, and succeeded Macclesfield as lord chancellor. It is said, the public expectation was disappointed by his conduct in chancery, as more of his decrees were repealed by the lords than had been known for the short time he had presided in the court of equity. He resigned the seals in 1733; and weakened by a paralytic disorder, died at his seat, at Ockam, Surrey, 1734, aged 65. SAMUEL SQUIRE, son of an apothecary at Warminster, Wilts, was educated at St. John's college, Cambridge, and was successively made archdeacon of Bath, rector of Topsfield, Essex, in 1750 rector of St. Anne's Westminster, vicar of Greenwich, and in 1760 dean of Bristol. The following year he was raised to the see of St. David's, and died 1766. He wrote a clever defence of the ancient Greek chronology, and an inquiry into the origin of the Greek language. JEAN BAPTIST LANGUET, born at Dijon, studied at Paris, and became a doctor of the Sorbonne, and vicar of St. Sulpice. He rebuilt his church, and rendered it one of the finest in the world for architecture and ornaments. He began the work with little money; but the emulation which he excited

among his parishoners, whose number amounted to 150,000, surmounted every obstacle; and the consecration in 1745 was attended with such splendour, that the king of Prussia thanked the public-spirited vicar for the success of his great exertions. He also founded the house of the Infant Jesus, divided into two parts, one of which was for the support of 35 poor ladies, and the other of more than 400 poor women, usefully employed in spinning, and in the working of cloths and linens. This noble institution, in 1741, contained more than 1400 women and girls, engaged in industrious labours, and encouraged in habits of virtue. The whole life of this truly great man was spent in deeds of humanity, so that he expended annually little less than a million of livres in charity. He refused all the high ecclesiastical promotions and bishoprics, to which cardinal Fleury, the duke of Orleans, Lewis XIV. and XV. wished to raise him. He died 1750, aged 75. ALI BEY, a native of Natolia, son of a Greek priest. In his 13th year he was carried away by some robbers as he was hunting, and sold to Ibrahim, a lieutenant of the Janissaries, at Grand Cairo, who treated him with kindness. Ali distinguished himself against the Arabs; but when his patron was basely assassinated, 1758, by Ibrahim the Circassian, he avenged his death, and slew the murderer with his own hand. This violent measure raised him enemies; and his flight to Jerusalem and to St. John d'Acre, with difficulty saved him from the resentment of the Ottoman Porte, which had demanded his head. Time, however, paved the way to his elevation. Those who had espoused the cause of the Circassian were sacrificed to the public safety; and Ali, recalled by the public voice, governed Egypt with benevolence and equity. The chiefs of each village were declared responsible for the ill conduct of their neighbours; and whilst the general link was extended

through every province, security was restored, and confidence revived. But the power of an eastern prince is always precarious; ingratitude was found among those on whom Ali had heaped favours, and when he assisted the Turkish government, his conduct was viewed with a jealous eye, and his death was determined on by the Mamluks. In a battle fought against a rebellious Mamluk, to whom he had intrusted part of his army, Ali saw some of his troops desert; and unwilling to survive a defeat, he defended himself with the fury of a lion, till he was cut down by a sabre, and carried to the rebel's tent, where eight days after he expired of his wounds. Ali died in his 45th year, 1773, and left behind him a character unrivalled for excellence, for courage, and for magnanimity. As governor of Egypt, he behaved with the tenderness of a parent; and to the love of his country were united humanity and an elevated genius. HUGH BOULTER (1671—1742) was born in or near London, and educated at Merchant Tailors' school, and Christ-church, Oxford. He was chosen demy of Magdalen, with Addison and Wilcox; which circumstance, from the respectability of the three students, is called the golden election. His learning recommended him to sir Charles Hedges, secretary of state, to Tenison, the primate, and to the earl of Sunderland, by whose patronage he was made chaplain to George I., whom he attended to Hanover in 1719. He was subsequently made English tutor to prince Frederick of Wales, dean of Christchurch, and bishop of Bristol. His moderation was so conspicuous, that when the primacy of Ireland became vacant, the king appointed him to that high station, which he accepted with great reluctance. Ireland was then a prey to faction, in consequence of Wood's ruinous schemes with respect to the coin; but the primate's efforts were directed to restore tranquillity. Though at first unpopular, his plans

succeeded, the scarcity of silver was remedied, and he became the favourite of the Irish. His munificence was unbounded during the scarcity of 1741; and not less than 2500 persons were daily supported at his expense. Hospitals were nobly endowed, the children of the indigent clergy were educated, public buildings erected, and not less than 30,000*l.* were devoted to improve the small livings of Ireland. This great and good man visited, in June 1742, his native country, died in London the September following, aged 71, and was interred in Westminster-abbey. Though a man of erudition, he left nothing but a few occasional sermons; but his beneficence and charity have gained him immortal fame. THEODORE, KING OF CORSICA, son of Anthony, baron de Newhoff, was born 1696 at Metz. He was for some time in the suite of baron Goertz, the Swedish minister; but after his execution, he left the Swedish for the Spanish service. He subsequently visited France, Holland, and England, and in 1736 landed in Corsica, while the inhabitants were in a state of rebellion against the Genoese. His character for boldness and enterprise was such, that as he had brought with him supplies of arms and money, he was soon regarded as the future deliverer of the Corsicans, and declared king of the island, 1736. In this capacity he displayed great vigour; and though denounced as a traitor by the Genoese, he collected an army of 25,000 men, and laid siege to Bastia, which he took. To render his power more united, he established an order called the order of deliverance; but his popularity vanished, when the promised succours from France and England did not arrive. His subjects grew dissatisfied; but Theodore, not trusting to ambassadors, determined in person to solicit the crowned heads of Europe for assistance, and after appointing a regency of 47, left the island. When he reached Paris, he was ordered to leave the kingdom;

and after retiring to Amsterdam, he embarked for the Mediterranean, but was soon after seized at Naples, and imprisoned. His circumstances were so desperate, that when set at liberty, he could not venture to visit his subjects, but fled to England. His creditors prosecuted him in England; and though a charitable contribution was made for his relief, he was thrown into the king's bench prison, from which in 1756 he extricated himself by an act of insolvency, after registering his kingdom for the benefit of his creditors, at Guildhall. He died soon after, December 11, 1756, aged 60, at the house of his tailor, and was buried in the churchyard of St. Anne's Westminster; where, in 1757, a marble monument was erected to his memory by Horace Walpole. EDMUND GIBSON (1669—1748), was born at Knipe, near Bampton, Westmorland. He entered as servitor at Queen's college, Oxford, and published 1691, William Drummond's 'Polemio Midiana,' and James V. of Scotland's 'Cantilena Rustica,' with curious notes. In 1692 he published a Latin translation of the 'Chronicon Saxonum,' and soon after 'Librorum MSS. in duabus insignibus bibliothecis, Catalogus,' dedicated to Tenison, bishop of London, who appointed him his chaplain. He took his master's degree in 1694, and the next year showed his abilities as an antiquary, by publishing Camden's Britannia, with additions, dedicated to Tenison, from whom he obtained the rectory of Ilsted, Essex, in 1700, the rectory of Lambeth, and the mastership of St. Mary's hospital, 1703, and in 1710 the archdeaconry of Surrey. His 'Codex Juris Ecclesiastici Anglicani' appeared 1713. When Wake succeeded to the primacy, 1715, Gibson was raised to the see of Lincoln, and in 1723 was translated to London. He died at Bath, 1748, aged 79. As a prelate Gibson ranks high. Vigilant over the rights of the church, he warmly supported the test act, and was zealous

that those who were admitted into holy orders should be persons of character, discretion, and learning. The establishment of preachers from Oxford and Cambridge at Whitehall alternately, took place at his suggestion. THOMAS BAKER (1656—1740), was born of a very respectable family. His grandfather, who was recorder of Newcastle, distinguished himself in the royal cause, and was almost ruined by his liberality in favour of the monarch. His son George, of Crook, in the county of Durham, married into the Northumberland family of Forster; and Thomas, one of the issue of this marriage, was educated at Durham grammar-school, and afterwards at St. John's college, Cambridge. He entered into orders, and was presented to Long Newton rectory; but he was soon after disgraced, for refusing to read James II.'s declaration for liberty of conscience; and he resigned his living, 1690, and returned to college, where he enjoyed his fellowship till dispossessed, in 1717, for refusing to take the oaths. He still continued to reside in the college till the day of his death, supported, it is said, by Matthew Prior, who retained his fellowship to supply the income to his friend. He was attacked by a paralytic stroke, which in three days terminated his existence, 1740, at the age of 84. In private life, Baker was distinguished by his affability, and his easy and mild manners; and as a scholar he was equally known. Besides his 'Reflections on Learning,' which passed through eight editions, and his 'Preface to Fisher's Funeral Sermon for the Countess of Richmond and Derby,' nothing has been published of his works; but he made collections for the history of St. John's college, and the antiquities of Cambridge university; so that not less than thirty-nine volumes in folio, and three in quarto, of these valuable manuscripts, are preserved in the British Museum and at Cambridge. Baker, as executor of his elder brother's will, was the means of founding six exhibitions at St. John's,

with money left for charitable uses. JOHN HENLEY (1692—1756), known by the appellation of 'Orator Henley,' was born at Melton-Mowbray, where his father was vicar; and he entered at the age of seventeen at St. John's college, Cambridge. When he had taken his first degree, he was invited by the trustees of Melton school to take care of that foundation; and he raised it from a languishing to a flourishing state. He published 'Esther,' a poem; and when in orders, he left the country, for fame and preferment in the capital. Determined to create public notice, he introduced regular action into the pulpit; but when disappointed of the promotion he expected, he formed a plan for lectures and orations. Every Sunday he discoursed on theology; while Wednesday was reserved for political subjects, into which he poured much of the gall of satire against the great. To this acrimonious spirit he owes the place which he holds in Pope's Dunciad, as 'the zany of his age.' Admission was procured to his theatre by the payment of a shilling; and as the lowest of the people formed the most numerous part of his audience, the 'Daily Advertiser' generally announced the topics which were to be discussed on each day, at his oratory near Lincoln's-inn-fields. He died 1756, aged 64. He published an account of himself and his adventures; and it is easily discovered that to personal vanity he added effrontery, and obtained popularity by bold invectives and satirical censoriousness. The medals which he struck for admission to his lectures, represented a star rising to the meridian, with 'Inveniam viam, aut faciam.' Hogarth has introduced him into two of his humorous pieces; in one of which he is christening a child, and in the other he appears on a scaffold with a monkey by his side, with the motto 'Amen,' and with other appropriate figures. Henley, it is said, gained 100*l.* a year by editing a periodical paper called 'the Hip Doctor,' which was a farrago of

nonsense. On one occasion, he filled his oratory with shoemakers, by announcing to them he would teach a new and short way of making shoes, which was by cutting off the tops of boots. JEAN PHILIPPE BARATIER (1721—1740), born in the margrave of Anspach, possessed such uncommon powers of memory, that, at the age of four, he conversed with his mother in French, with his father in Latin, and with the servants in German. What is not very usual, the rapidity of his improvement augmented with his years; so that he became acquainted with Greek at six, with Hebrew at eight, and in his eleventh year translated from the Hebrew into French the 'Travels of Benjamin of Tudela,' which he enriched with valuable annotations. His proficiency in mathematics was so great, that he submitted to the London Royal Society a scheme for finding the longitude; which, though insufficient, exhibited the strongest marks of superior abilities. When at Halle with his father in 1735, he was offered by the university the degree of M.A.; and having, on the occasion, drawn up fourteen theses, he disputed upon them with such logical precision, that he astonished a most crowded audience. At Berlin he was received with kindness by the king of Prussia, and honoured with marks of distinction. His abilities, however, shone but like a meteor; a constitution naturally delicate, was rendered still more weak by excessive application; and a cough, spitting of blood, and fever on the spirits, put an end to his life at Halle, 1740, in his 20th year. SAMUEL MADDEN, a name which, according to Dr. Johnson, 'Ireland ought to honour,' was of French extraction, and was educated at Dublin. In 1731 he offered premiums for the promotion of learning in Dublin college; and in 1740 he appropriated the yearly sum of 190*l.* as a premium to such natives of Ireland as improved arts and manufactures, or excelled in painting and sculpture; a noble ex-

ample, copied by the English in the establishment of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts and Sciences in London. This benevolent man died 1765. HENRI FRANÇOIS D'AGUESSEAU (1668—1751), the descendant of a noble family of Saintogne, was born at Limoges, and after completing his education, cultivated poetry, and acquired the esteem and friendship of men of letters, particularly of Boileau and Racine. In the office of advocate-general of Paris in 1691, and, nine years after, of procureur-general, he displayed all the energies of his nature; and distributed justice with an impartial hand. His attention was particularly directed to the management of the hospitals; and in the enlarged views of a benevolent heart, he often resisted the intrigues of favourites, and even the prejudices of Louis XIV. After that monarch's death, he was appointed by the duke of Orleans to succeed Voisin as chancellor; and he rejected the schemes of Law, which were afterwards too fatally adopted, and hurled the whole kingdom into ruin and despondency. The machinations of his enemies were too powerful, and he was twice obliged to resign the seals, and retire in disgrace to his seat of Fresnes; and twice again he was solicited by the regent to resume a situation which he adorned and dignified. The wishes nearest to his heart were, to be useful to his country, and not to accumulate wealth by dishonourable measures. On the tribunal, as in his private life, his moderation and his equity were ever apparent; and in his retirement at Fresnes, where, as he says, he passed the fairest days of his life, he was employed in the education of his children, in literary pursuits, and often amused himself in digging the ground. Temperance and cheerfulness added to the pleasures of science, and contributed to the health of the body and the vigour of the mind; and till his 80th year he enjoyed a robust constitution. At this advanced age infirmities came upon him, he resigned

the office of chancellor, and died soon after, 1751, aged 83. D'Aguesseau was humane and religious from his childhood; and he never spent a day without reading the Holy Scriptures, which he called the balm of his life. From the vast conceptions of his genius, France derived new regulations to strengthen the liberties of the subject, check the rapacity of the nobles, and unite the whole kingdom in paying reverence to the laws. His works have been published in nine vols. 4to. JAN VAN-HUYSUM (1682—1749), of Amsterdam, applied his genius in the delineation of flowers, fruit, and landscapes. In the representation of the down and bloom of fruit, and the varied tints of flowers, no painter ever possessed greater delicacy; and his pieces were so much admired as to fetch extraordinarily high prices. The violent temper of his wife, and the ill-conduct of his son, ruffled his spirits in the last part of life, and produced habits of intemperance and of melancholy. He died at Amsterdam, 1749, aged 67. ANTONY RAPHAEL MENGES was born at Aussig in Bohemia, 1726. His father, who was a painter, encouraged his rising abilities; and after studying at Rome for four years, the young painter returned to Dresden. Charles III. of Spain granted him a pension, with a house and equipage; but though thus favoured, he resided not in Spain, but at Rome, where grief for his amiable wife, and the ignorance of an empiric, put an end to his life, 1779. His five daughters and two sons were honourably provided for by the king of Spain. The chief of his paintings are preserved at Madrid and Rome; and in them he successfully united the graces and the beauties of Raffaele, Correggio, and Titian. The altarpiece of All Souls chapel, Oxford, is also one of his admired pieces. GEORGE GRAHAM, an eminent watch and clock maker, was born at Gratzwick, Cumberland, 1675. In 1688 he came to London. To a perfect knowledge of mechanics he added practical astronomy; and by

his accuracy, he invented and improved several astronomical instruments. The great mural arch in Greenwich observatory, was made under his inspection, and divided by his own hand; and with his sector Dr. Bradley first discovered two new motions in the fixed stars. The instruments with which the French academicians made observations on the figure of the earth, and those in the cabinets of the king of Spain, and other princes, were all constructed by this ingenious artist. As a member of the Royal Society, he contributed some valuable discoveries, especially on the magnetic needle, and a quicksilver pendulum, and the simple pendulum. The remains of this respectable man were carried, November 24, 1751, with great solemnity to Westminster, and deposited in the same grave with his friend and master Tompion. JOSIAH TUCKER, born at Llaugharn, in the county of Caermarthenshire, and educated at St. John's college, Oxford, became rector of St. Stephen's, then prebendary of the cathedral, and in 1758 dean of Gloucester. During the American war, he drew much of the public attention upon himself by his pamphlets, in which he asserted the necessity of granting independence to the colonies, rather than to attempt to subdue them by arms. As a writer on subjects of government, of commerce, and of politics, his opinion was highly respectable. In his treatise on civil government he opposed Locke, and proved himself no mean antagonist in the field of philosophy and reasoning. He published some sermons, &c., and died at an advanced age, 1799. GIUSEPPE TARTINI (1692—1770), a musician, called the admirable by Dr. Burney, was born at Pirano in Istria. He studied the law at Padua, but his powers were formed for musical eminence; and by practice and application, he became one of the best performers on the violin, and was made master of the band in the church of St. Antony of Padua. He

died 1770, at Padua, universally respected, and endeared to the inhabitants by a residence of fifty years. WILLIAM GED, a goldsmith of Edinburgh, who invented a plate for printing whole pages, instead of using a type for every letter. This had first been practised by the Chinese and Japanese in blocks of wood. In the prosecution of his plan, Ged applied to the university of Cambridge to print bibles and prayer-books after the new method; but much money was sunk in the attempt, and by the villany of the pressmen, and the ill conduct of his partners, he was ruined. He returned to Scotland 1733, and gave a specimen of his plan by the publication of a Sallust, in 1749. He died 1749. BROWNE WILLIS (1682—1760) born at Blandford, Dorsetshire, was educated at Westminster, and Christ-church, Oxford. He afterwards retired to Fenny-Stratford, and in 1705 was member of parliament for Buckingham. In 1717 he became one of the members of the society of antiquaries, just revived; and he showed such emulation in the pursuit of antiquities, that he visited all the cathedrals of England and Wales, except Carlisle. Though he had a large family, he gave, in 1741, to the university his valuable cabinet of English coins, the laborious collection of upwards of forty years; and liberally made other contributions to charitable purposes. He died, aged 78, 1760. The best known of his works are, 'The Survey of the Cathedrals,' and an 'Account of Mitred Abbeys.' JOHN DALTON, was born at Deane in Cumberland, 1709. He was educated at Lowther, and at Queen's college, Oxford. He adapted Milton's masque at Ludlow castle to the stage, with a judicious selection of songs from other works of the author, and some of his own, a very popular piece, still admired under the title of 'Comus.' During the celebrity of this performance, he sought out Milton's granddaughter, who was overwhelmed with age and poverty, and procured her a benefit,

which produced 120*l*. After being elected fellow of his college, he took orders, and was presented to the living of St. Mary at Hill, and a prebend at Worcester, where he died, aged 54, 1763. JAMES MILLER, born in Dorsetshire, 1703, was of Wadham college, Oxford; where he began his famous comedy, 'The Humours of Oxford,' performed 1729. He wrote besides, comedies, occasional pieces, and 'Mahomet the Impostor,' a tragedy; during the popular run of which the author died of consumption. He also published some sermons; and a few weeks before his death he was presented to the living of Upcerne, Dorsetshire, which his father had held. He died, aged 41, 1744. VALENTINE DUVAL, of Artonay in Champagne, at the age of ten lost his father, who was a poor labourer, and hired himself to keep the poultry-yard of a neighbouring farmer. In the winter of 1709, he travelled towards Lorraine, and in the cold journey was attacked by the small-pox, under which he must have sunk, but for the timely assistance of a shepherd. Recovered from this malady he went to Clezantine, and was two years in the service of another shepherd, and then became an attendant on brother Palemon, at the hermitage of La Rochette. From this abode he removed to the hermitage of St. Anne, near Luneville, and there he learned to write. His activity was here employed in the pursuit of game, which he sold to increase his books and knowledge; and his finding of a seal belonging to Mr. Forster, an English resident at Luneville, which he very honourably advertised, procured him new advantages. Forster, rewarding his honesty, assisted him in the purchase of books and of maps, and his library soon increased to 400 volumes. While one day engaged in the study of a map at the foot of a tree near Luneville, he was found by the princes of Lorraine; and the sensible remarks which he made to his illustrious visitors, engaged their attention so much,

that they promised him protection. The young adventurer quitted the hermitage with tears of gratitude; and under the Jesuits of Pont-a-Mousson, he made himself master of history, geography, and antiquities. In 1718 he visited Paris in the suite of his patron Leopold; and at his return became his librarian, and also professor of history at Luneville. In this new office he was attended by several Englishmen, and particularly by Mr. Pitt, afterwards earl of Chatham, whose future eminence he prophetically announced. Raised to independence, he showed his gratitude to the hermits of St. Anne, by rebuilding their residence. On the death of Leopold, in 1738, he followed his son Francis to Tuscany, and soon after to Vienna, where he had the care of the medals. Here the poor labourer's son lived respected and beloved; and in 1751 was nominated preceptor to prince Joseph. In 1752 he visited Paris, and was honourably received by the learned; and on his return, passing by Artonay, his native village, he purchased the cottage which the indigence of his sister had sold, and built on the spot where he was born a house, which he appropriated to the residence of the public school-master of the place. This pious character died 1775, aged 81, displaying in his last moments that resignation and faith which close the life of a good man. ANDREW FOUNTAINE, born at Narford, Norfolk, was educated at Christ-church, Oxford. He studied the Anglo-Saxon language, and published a specimen of his great proficiency in his instructor Hicks's 'Thesaurus.' He was knighted by William, and afterwards travelled through Europe to collect valuable pictures, medals, statues, and inscriptions. He was the correspondent of Swift, and embellished his 'Tale of a Tub' with excellent designs. Sir Andrew, as a connoisseur of medals and antiques, improved his property greatly by collecting one of the largest cabinets in the kingdom. He was vice-cham-

berlain to queen Caroline, and in 1727 was made warden of the mint, which he held till his death, 1753. JOHN HARRISON (1693—1776), born at Foulby near Pontefract, was son of a carpenter, and was brought up to the business. He had early a strong propensity to wheel-machinery; and as his father was occasionally employed in repairing clocks, he improved in his knowledge of the power of movements. In 1700 his father removed to Barrow, Lincolnshire; and there he obtained from a neighbouring clergyman a MS. copy of Sanderson's lectures, which he transcribed, and from which he drew a hitherto unknown fund of knowledge. He made some ingenious experiments, and in 1726 produced two clocks chiefly of wood, with the compound pendulum, so accurately constructed that they varied scarcely a second in one month. He visited London 1735, and by Dr. Halley was recommended to that ingenious artist G. Graham, who advised him to complete his machines to present to the board of longitude. In 1737 his first machine was approved by the board, and he was sent to Lisbon to try its accuracy and its properties. He produced another more simple machine in 1739, and again a third in 1749; but while he considered his labours as arrived at the highest degree of perfection, he discovered that greater accuracy might still be obtained, and a fourth time his machine, six inches in diameter, and in the shape of a watch, was constructed. The correctness of this machine was ascertained by the author's son in a voyage to Jamaica, and in another to Barbadoes; and as his discovery came within the meaning of the act of the 12th of Anne, he claimed and obtained the liberal reward of 20,000*l.* from parliament. These four curious machines were deposited in the observatory of Greenwich, where it is said they are now buried in oblivion. The last timepiece made by this ingenious artist erred only four seconds and a

half in ten weeks. Harrison died 1776, aged 83. JOHAN DILLENIUS (1681—1747) was born at Darmstadt, and educated at Giessen, in Upper Hesse. In his dissertation on the coffee of the Arabians, he asserts, that from rye can be produced that which most nearly resembles coffee. Being prevailed upon to settle in England, 1721, he engaged in a new edition of 'Ray's Synopsis Stirpium Britannicarum;' and by the death of his friend in 1728, and his bequeathing 3000*l.* to the university of Oxford for a botanical professorship, to which he was first to be appointed, he was raised to comfortable independence. In this situation he applied himself diligently to the improvement of botany; but that science was not yet a favourite study, and when he flattered himself with profit from his '*Hortus Elthamensis*,' and like works, he experienced only loss. In 1735 the university granted him the degree of M.D., and the following year he was honoured with a visit from his friend Linnæus. He died 1747, aged 66. His drawings, dried plants, MSS., &c., were purchased by his successor, and enrich the treasures of Oxford. His best work is on mosses. LOUIS CÉSAR D'ESTREES, marshal of France and minister of state, first distinguished himself in the war against Spain, and afterwards in the war of 1741, where, at the blockade of Egra, the battle of Fontenoi, the sieges of Mons, Charleroi, &c., his bravery was conspicuous. In 1756 he was placed at the head of the French forces in Germany, gave battle to the duke of Cumberland at Hastenbach, and paved the way for the success of Closter-Seven. He was made a duke in 1763, and died 1771, aged 76. JONAS HANWAY, born at Portsmouth 1712, was early engaged with a merchant at Lisbon, and afterwards with a house at Petersburg, in the business of which he travelled into Persia. On his return to London, he employed his opulence to the purposes of humanity; and to his public

spirit the Marine society owes its origin. He was also one of the first committee of the Magdalen charity. His philanthropy was such, that several British merchants applied to lord Bute to distinguish him by some mark of public esteem; and he was accordingly made commissioner of the navy; and when, after 20 years, he resigned the office, he was permitted to retain the salary. His exertions to relieve the chimneysweeps, deserve also the highest praise; and to his humane intentions Sunday-schools are in some degree to be attributed. At his death, which happened 1786, a public subscription was contributed to erect a monument to the memory of a man, who had shone as a pattern of benevolence and virtue. Of his publications, said to have amounted to nearly 70, the best known are an account of 'Travels through Russia, Persia, &c.,' and 'Domestic Happiness Promoted.' He was the first person who used an umbrella in the streets of London. STEPHEN HALES, a native of Kent, was educated at Benet college, Cambridge, where he became fellow 1703. He studied botany and experimental philosophy, and was the ingenious inventor of a machine which displayed the various motions of the heavens, similar to a modern orrery. Satisfied with the rectory of Teddington, near Hampton-court, he disregarded the higher preferments which the influence of friends might have procured, and died after a few days' illness 1761, aged 84, universally respected. He published in 1741 his invention of ventilators.

SOVEREIGNS.—TURKEY.—1703, Ahmed III.; 1730, Mahmud I.; 1754, Osman II.; 1757, Mustafa III. **PORTUGAL.**—1705, John V.; 1750, Joseph I. **SPAIN.**—1700, Philip V.; 1746, Ferdinand VI.; 1759, Charles III. **GERMANY.**—1711, Charles VI.; 1740, Charles VII.; 1745, Francis I. of Lorraine and Maria Theresa of Austria. **POLAND.**—1709, Augustus I. restored; 1733, Augustus II. **PRUSSIA.**—1713, Frederick William I.; 1740, Frederick II., the Great. **POPES.**—1724, Benedict XIII.; 1730, Clement XII.; 1740, Benedict XIV.; 1758, Clement XIII. **FRANCE.**—1715, Louis XV. **RUSSIA.**—1727, Peter II.; 1730, Anne; 1740, Iwan VI.; 1741, Elizabeth Petrowna. **SWEDEN.**—1720, Frederick of Hesse-Cassel; 1751, Adolphus Frederick. **DENMARK AND NORWAY.**—1699, Frederick IV.; 1730, Christiern VI.; 1746, Frederick V. **TWO SICILIES.**—1735, Charles I.; 1759, Ferdinand IV. **SARDINIA.**—1720, Victor Amadeus II.; 1730, Charles Emanuel II. **PERSIA.**—1725, Ashraf the Afghan; 1730, Tamasp II.; 1731, Abbas III.; 1732, Nadir Shah; 1747, Ali Adil Shah; 1750, Interregnum; 1753, Kharim Khan Zend. **FOUNDATION OF KABUL.**—1747, Ahmed I., Durani. **NETHERLANDS.**—1711, William IV. **DELHI.**—1718, Mohammed; 1747, Ahmed; 1753, Alemgir II. **CHINA.**—1723, Yung-ching; 1735, Kien-Lung. **HUNGARY.**—1712, Charles VI. Emperor; 1741, Maria Theresa: henceforth a portion of the German empire.

DECLINE AND FALL OF THE JACOBITE CAUSE.

In the beginning of April, 1746, the duke of Cumberland began his march from Aberdeen; and on the 12th passed the deep and rapid river Spey, without opposition from the Jacobites, though a detachment of them appeared on the op-

posite side. Why they did not dispute the passage is not easy to be conceived: but, indeed, from this instance of neglect, and their subsequent conduct, we may conclude they were under a total infatuation. The duke proceeded to Nairn, where

he received intelligence that the enemy had advanced from Inverness to Cullodden-muir, about the distance of nine miles from the royal army, with intention to give him battle. The design of Charles was to march in the night from Cullodden, and surprise the duke's army at daybreak: for this purpose the English camp had been reconnoitred; and on the night of the 15th the Highland army began to march in two columns. Their design was to surround the enemy, and attack them at once on all quarters: but the length of the columns embarrassed their march, so that the army was obliged to make many halts: the men also had been under arms during the whole preceding night, were faint with hunger and fatigue, and many of them overpowered with sleep. Some were unable to proceed; others dropped off unperceived in the dark; and the march was retarded in such a manner, that it would have been impossible to reach the duke's camp before sunrise. The design being thus frustrated, the Prince-Pretender was with great reluctance prevailed upon by his general officers to measure back his way to Cullodden; at which place he had no sooner arrived, than great numbers of his followers dispersed in quest of provision; and many, overcome with weariness and sleep, threw themselves down on the heath, and along the park-walls. Their repose, however, was soon interrupted in a very disagreeable manner. The Prince, on receiving intelligence that his enemies were in full march to attack him, resolved to hazard an engagement, and ordered his troops to be formed for that purpose. On the 16th, the duke having made the proper dispositions, decamped from Nairn early in the morning; and after a march of nine miles, he perceived the Highlanders drawn up in order of battle, to the number of four thousand men, in thirteen divisions, supplied with some pieces of artillery. The royal army, which was

much more numerous, the duke immediately formed into three lines, disposed in excellent order; and about one o'clock in the afternoon the cannonading began. The artillery of the Jacobites was ill served, and did very little execution: but that of the king's troops made dreadful havoc among the enemy. Impatient of this fire, their front line advanced to the attack; and about 500 men of the clans charged the duke's left wing with their usual impetuosity. One regiment was disordered by the weight of this column: but two battalions, advancing from the second line, sustained the first, and soon put a stop to the clansmen's career by a severe fire, that killed a great number of them. At the same time, the dragoons under Hawley, and the Argyshire militia pulled down a park-wall that covered their right flank, and the cavalry falling in among them, completed their confusion. The French piquets on the left covered the retreat of the Highlanders by a close and regular fire, and then retired to Inverness; where they surrendered themselves prisoners of war. An entire body of the Jacobites marched off the field in order, with their pipes playing, and the Pretender's standard displayed; the rest were routed with great slaughter; and the prince was with reluctance prevailed upon to retire. In less than thirty minutes they had been totally defeated, and the field covered with the slain. The road, as far as Inverness, was strown with dead bodies; and a considerable number of people, who from motives of curiosity had come to see the battle, were sacrificed to the undistinguishing vengeance of the victors. Twelve hundred Jacobites were slain or wounded on the field and in the pursuit. The earl of Kilmarnock was taken; and in a few days lord Balmerino surrendered to a country gentleman, at whose house he presented himself for this purpose. The glory of the victory, however,

was sullied by the barbarity of the soldiers. Not content with the blood which was so profusely shed in the heat of the action, they traversed the field after the battle, and massacred those miserable wretches who lay maimed and expiring. The vanquished prince rode off the field, accompanied by the duke of Perth, lord Elcho, and a few horsemen; and having crossed the water of Nairn, he retired to the house of a gentleman in Strutharrick, where he conferred with old lord Lovat. Then he dismissed his followers, and wandered about a wretched and solitary fugitive among the isles and mountains, for the space of five months; during which he underwent such a series of dangers, hardships, and misery as no other person ever outlived.

When the news of the victory arrived in England, the nation was transported with joy, and extolled the duke of Cumberland as a hero and deliverer; and the commons, by bill, added five-and-twenty thousand pounds per annum to his former revenue.

Immediately after the action, the duke took possession of Inverness, where six-and-thirty deserters, convicted by a court-martial, were ordered to be executed; and he then detached several parties to ravage the country, one of which apprehended the lady Mackintosh, who was sent prisoner to Inverness. They did not plunder her house, but drove away her cattle, though her husband was actually in the service of the government. The castle of lord Lovat they destroyed. The French prisoners were sent to Carlisle and Penrith: Kilmarnock, Balmerino, Cromartie, and his son, the lord Macleod, were conveyed by sea to London; and those of an inferior rank were confined in different prisons. The marquis of Tullibardine, together with a brother of the earl of Dunmore, was seized, and transported to the tower of London, to which the earl of Traquair had been committed on suspicion. In a few months after, Murray, the Pre-

tender's secretary, was apprehended; and the eldest son of Lord Lovat, having surrendered himself, was imprisoned in the castle of Edinburgh. In a word, all the gaols of Great Britain, from the capital northwards, were filled with those unfortunate captives; and great numbers of them were crowded together in the holds of ships, where they perished in the most deplorable manner, for want of necessaries, air, and exercise. Some Jacobite chiefs escaped in two French frigates which had arrived on the coast of Lochaber about the end of April, and which having attacked three vessels belonging to his Britannic majesty, obliged them to retire. Others embarked on board a ship on the coast of Buchan, and were conveyed to Norway.

In the month of May, the duke of Cumberland, not content with the slaughter effected, advanced with the army into the Highlands, as far as Fort Augustus; and he then sent off detachments on all hands to hunt down the fugitives, and lay waste the country with fire and sword. The castles of Glengary and Lochiel were plundered and burned; every house, hut, or habitation, met with the same fate, without distinction; all the cattle and provisions were carried off; the men were either shot upon the mountains like wild beasts, or put to death in cold blood, without form of trial; and the women, after having seen their husbands and fathers murdered, were subjected to brutal violation, and then turned out naked with their children, to starve on the barren heaths. One whole family was inclosed in a barn, and consumed to ashes. The ministers of vengeance were so alert in the execution of their office, that in a few days there was neither house, cottage, man, nor beast to be seen in the compass of fifty miles: all was ruin, silence, and desolation!

The rebellion being quelled, the legislature resolved to make exam-

ples, of those who had been concerned in it; and courts were opened in June, in different parts of England, for the trial of the prisoners. Seventeen persons who had borne arms in the rebel army, were executed at Kennington-common, in the neighbourhood of London, and suffered with great constancy under the dreadful tortures which their sentence prescribed; nine were put to death in the same manner at Carlisle, six at Brompton, seven at Penrith, and eleven at York: of these a considerable number were gentlemen, and had acted as officers. About fifty had been executed as deserters in different parts of Scotland: eighty-one suffered the pains of the law as traitors. A few obtained pardons, and a considerable number were transported to the plantations. Bills of indictment for high treason were found by the county of Surrey against the earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie, and lord Balmerino; and these noblemen were tried by their peers in Westminster-hall. The two earls confessed their crimes, and in pathetic speeches recommended themselves to his majesty's mercy. Lord Balmerino pleaded not guilty: he denied having been at Carlisle at the time specified in the indictment; but this exception was overruled. Then he moved a point of law in arrest of judgment, and was allowed to be heard by his counsel. 'The three,' said the counsel, 'might have expiated on the hardship of being tried by an *ex post facto* law, and claimed the privilege of trial in the county where the act of treason was said to have been committed.' The same hardship was imposed upon all the imprisoned rebels: they were dragged in captivity to a strange country, far from their friends and connexions, destitute of means to produce evidence in their favour, even if they had been innocent of the charge. Balmerino waived this plea, and submitted to the court, which pronoun-

ced sentence of death upon him and his two associates. Cromartie's life was spared; but the other two were beheaded, in the month of August, on Tower-hill. Kilmarnock was a nobleman of fine personal accomplishments. He had been educated in revolution-principles, and only engaged in the rebellion from resentment to the government, on being deprived of a pension he had for some time enjoyed. He was convinced of his having acted criminally, and died with marks of penitence and contrition. Balmerino had been bred to arms, and acted upon principle. He was gallant, brave, rough, and resolute; he eyed the implements of death with the most careless familiarity, and seemed to triumph in his sufferings. In November, Mr. Ratcliff, the titular earl of Derwentwater, who had been taken in a ship bound to Scotland, was arraigned on a former sentence, passed against him in the year 1716. He refused to acknowledge the authority of the court, and pleaded that he was a subject of France, honoured with a commission in the service of his most Christian majesty. The identity of his person being proved, a rule was made for his execution; and on the 8th of December he suffered decapitation, with the most perfect composure and serenity. Lord Lovat, now turned fourscore, was impeached by the commons, and tried in Westminster-hall before the lord high-steward. John Murray, secretary to the Prince-Prentender, and some of his own domestics appeared against him: he was convicted of high-treason, and condemned. Notwithstanding his age and infirmities, he died like an old Roman, exclaiming '*dulce et decorum pro patria mori*.' He surveyed the crowd with attention, examined the axe, jested with the executioner, and laid his head upon the block with the utmost indifference.

Years passed over, but the search after Jacobite rebels still continued;

and the year 1758 was distinguished by the seizure and execution of Dr. Archibald Cameron, brother to Cameron of Lochiel, chief of that numerous and warlike tribe, who had taken the field with the Prince-Prentender. After the battle of Culloden, where he was dangerously wounded, the chief found means to escape to the continent. His brother, the doctor, had accompanied him in all his expeditions, though not in a military capacity, and was included with him in the act of attainer against those who had been concerned in the rebellion. Notwithstanding the imminent danger attending such an attempt, the doctor returned privately to Scotland, in order (as it was reported) to recover a sum of money belonging to the Pretender, which had been embezzled by his adherents in that country. Whatever may have been his inducement to revisit his native country under such a predicament, certain it is he was discovered, apprehended, conducted to London, confined in the tower, examined by the privy-council, and produced in the court of King's-Bench; where, his identity being proved by several witnesses, he received sentence of death, and was executed at Tyburn. The terror of the people, occasioned by the rebellion, having by this time subsided, their humane passions did not fail to operate in favour of this unfortunate gentleman. Their pity was mingled with esteem, arising from his personal character, which was altogether unblemished; and his deportment on the occasion, which they could not help admiring, as the standard of manly fortitude and decorum, was highly dignified and becoming. The populace, though not very subject to tender emotions, were moved to compassion, and even to tears, by his behaviour at the place of execution; and many sincere well-wishers to the Hanoverian succession thought that the sacrifice of this victim, at such a juncture, could not either redound

to its honour, or minister to its security.

The execution of Dr. Cameron was the last public act of severity practised against the Jacobite party; and the cause daily diminishing in strength after that event, it was with truth, as well as feeling, that seven years after the needless example, a new British sovereign, whose virtues restored the divine spirit of loyalty once more to English bosoms, declared to his private friends 'he felt himself more the sovereign of these realms *JURE DIVINO*, now that the Stuart quarrel was settled, than either of his two predecessors could have done.'

The observation of the regal successor of king George II., was as creditable to his heart, as it was true in principle. We are ready to acknowledge that, by the will of a directing Providence, the Stuart house had lost its hold of the sympathies of the great body of the English people, when king James II. had assumed the sceptre; and also that, in the words of Samuel Johnson, an acknowledged Jacobite, it had become impossible for that monarch to reign any longer in this country. But the successor of king George II. knew how to value that species of character, which had essentially attached to the nonjuring party, from the deprived prelates of William's time, to the last victim of the scaffold in his own. The spirit of loyalty had been *crushed* in England by her Revolution; and had continued under the harrow from the period of that event to the moment of the accession of king George III. The coinciding accidents of the last-named ruler being the first Briton born of the kings of the Hanoverian house, and the failure of heirs male of the Stuart family, enabled that principle, which had been so long depressed, but which can never wholly die in the English breast, to revive; and the subsequent reign of a sovereign, who was distinguished as much by his virtues, as by the success which

attended his indefatigable labours for the public happiness, fanned the holy flame again into a steady-burning light. Loyalty, in a word, had once more become a passion among our countrymen, towards the close of king George III.'s career ; and to the unfettered state of Jacobite affections such an issue is alone attributable. Democritical and low-church notions had been triumphant in Great Britain from the day of king William's defeat of his father-in-law at the Boyne, to that on which king George II. died—from 1690 to 1760. The nation had been ruled, in that interval of 70 years, wholly by whig policy ; which, imposing every possible restraint upon the Regal Power, and denying all allegiance to The Church in Unity as a work of God's institution, necessarily damps and depresses those tendencies in the human heart, which the divine Founder of our faith has both approved and enjoined—to 'render unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar's, and unto God the things that are God's.' When the

nonjuring portion of the community saw the race for which they had sacrificed their dearest earthly interests no longer existing to need their dutiful veneration, they felt themselves relieved from their conscientious scruples, and bound to honour and obey the ordained 'powers that be.' In thus transferring their allegiance to the nearest heirs of the deprived house, they brought to the new dynasty their ancient belief in the divine right of kings ; which, as Dr. Johnson says, at least proves, 'that the Jacobites believed in a Divinity ;' and they at the same time brought to the Church their faith in the divine right of bishops, whereby, according to the same authority, they asserted 'their belief in the divine authority of the Christian religion ;' and persons who hold those two sentiments combined, offer, we humbly think, to the throne of an earthly potentate, the securest guarantee for their fidelity to it in the day of its need and peril.

PERIOD THE FOURTEENTH.

FROM THE FALL OF THE JACOBITE CAUSE TO THE OUTBREAK OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION.

1760 to 1789—29 YEARS.

REIGN CLXXIII.—PART I.

GEORGE III., KING OF ENGLAND.

1760 to 1820—60 YEARS.

PART I.—1760 TO 1789—29 YEARS.

PERSONAL HISTORY.—George III. was the son of Frederick prince of Wales and Augusta of Saxe-Gotha ; and his birth took place June 4, 1738, at Norfolk house, St. James's square, London ; he being the first of the line of Brunswick, who was a Briton born. From his father's differences with his parent, the youth of George III. was passed in perfect seclusion ; and he was educated in a private manner, according to the direction of the earl of Bute. When called to succeed his grandfather, he was unacquainted

even with the persons of the late king's ministers. He espoused, 1761, Charlotte, daughter of Charles, duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, by whom he had nine sons and six daughters: viz.—1. *George IV.*; 2. Frederick, duke of York; 3. *William IV.*; 4. Charlotte, married to the duke, afterwards king, of Wurttemberg; 5. Edward, duke of Kent, father of our present gracious queen; 6. Augusta; 7. Elizabeth, married to the duke of Hesse Homburg; 8. Ernest, duke of Cumberland; 9. Augustus, duke of Sussex; 10. Adolphus, duke of Cambridge; 11. Mary, who married her cousin the duke of Gloucester; 12. Sophia; 13, 14. Octavius and Alfred, who died young; 15. Amelia, who died unmarried, aged twenty-seven, 1810. George III. was in person manly and robust, of a good height, and with a fair and ruddy complexion. His general appearance was that of an English country-gentleman. Though hurried in speech, and apt to repeat questions, his manners were easy and urbane; and he would delight in conversing with any of his subjects who chanced to come in his way. His tastes and amusements were plain and practical; literature and the fine arts took up little of his time; but hunting, mechanical contrivances, and domestic converse, were his delight. Religious, moral, and temperate, the decorum of his private life was most exemplary: and there never was an instance, perhaps, in any nation, of a sovereign offering to his people so admirable a pattern of conjugal fidelity, and of parental wisdom, as that presented by George III. His consort, Queen Charlotte, was a very amiable princess; and though somewhat parsimonious for her elevated station, she was deservedly regarded as a purifier of the court, and as a model, in the strict performance of the relative duties of wife and mother, to every female in the kingdom. Like the other members of the Brunswick family, king George III. was possessed of great presence of mind on occasions of difficulty; and, arduous as were his trials, no consideration could shake his firmness. In a word, it may be asserted, that a more virtuous, paternal, and pious king never sat upon any throne; nor was there ever a ruler of men who manifested a more awful sense of the source from which he derived his authority, or of the great and beneficial ends for which it was designed.

POLITICAL HISTORY.—George III., when he succeeded his grandfather, Oct. 25, 1760, was in his twenty-third year. Of a handsome person and unspotted reputation, he gave great satisfaction in his speech to the council, by saying that he gloried in being by birth an Englishman. He had also another great advantage over his predecessors of the house of Brunswick: the cause of the excluded family was now lost for ever: most of the Jacobites, therefore, readily took the oath of allegiance to him, and the spirit of loyalty, which had slumbered from the period of the Revolution, roused itself to greet the monarch who was a Briton born. The commons having complimented the new king, by an ample civil list, and a bountiful supply of money to continue the war, George, in return, made the judges independent of the crown; an act which was alone wanting to render the mode of legal jurisdiction in England superior to that of any other existing nation.

Meanwhile the war with France continued to be supported with vigour: prince Ferdinand, at the head of the allies, pursued his victorious career in Germany; and Belleisle, on the coast of France, was captured by admiral Keppel. The French court hereupon secretly entered into a treaty with Spain, called 'the family compact,' 1761, which Mr. Pitt discovered; but as the nation would not give credit to his statements, he resigned the seals, and a new administration, excluding the whigs, who had been the main supporters of the Hanoverian succession, was framed by the earl of Bute. This ministry soon found Mr. Pitt's intelligence to have been correct; and every means was taken to assail the Spaniards. Havannah, their most valuable

possession in the West Indies ; Manilla, the capital of the Philippine isles in the East Indies ; and two millions sterling from the galleons, were speedily in the hands of the British, 1762. The issue was, that all the continental powers became tired of a war which was hourly draining their resources, and giving a proportionate access of force to the British : the latter, therefore, lamented to find a treaty of peace signed at Paris, 1763, by which England was allowed to keep Canada, and other vast conquests, and to exchange Florida for the Havannah. Thus ended the Seven Years' War.

Lord Bute soon after this resigned, upon passing an unpopular act, whereby a tax was laid upon cider ; and when Mr. George Grenville succeeded him, great attacks were made upon the king and the government by libellous writers. On the publication, 1763, of No. 45 of a paper called the ' North Briton,' conducted by Mr. Wilkes, the member for Aylesbury, wherein the king was charged with having uttered a deliberate falsehood in his speech to the houses, a general warrant, that is, one in which the names of the parties to be arrested are not specified, was issued by the home-secretary, for the seizure of the author, printers, and publishers. As the judges decided that the privileges of parliament extended even to the case of writing a libel, Mr. Wilkes and his party were released ; but the commons declared the reverse, and while the matter was debating Wilkes escaped to France, leaving the parliament to settle the great constitutional question, whether general warrants were illegal. The member, however, having been elected for Middlesex upon his return to England in 1768, the house again took up the dispute. Wilkes was fined 1000*l.* for his former offence, and imprisoned twenty-two months : at the end of which a riot was occasioned by a mob which had assembled to carry the member to parliament in triumph. A death, and some wounds, in the skirmish with the soldiers, brought great odium on the latter ; and Mr. Wilkes was expelled the house for a virulent invective he thereupon set forth against those in power. It was then that the letters of Junius, an anonymous author, so distinguished for their brilliancy of style and caustic severity, came forth, with a host of inferior works, in support of Wilkes, and what was called ' the cause of the people.'—(*See Life of Wilkes.*)

The attention of the country, however, was soon to be turned to more important considerations. The marquis of Rockingham had taken the reins of government during the year 1766, and Mr. Pitt, now earl of Chatham, had formed a new ministry in 1767, with the duke of Grafton at the head, to prevent, if possible, the on-coming of the various storms that threatened the political horizon. Our American colonies, sore at being taxed to bear their proportion of the burdens of the mother-country, had shown a disposition to resist even by force of arms : the East India Company's affairs were all in confusion, through the avarice and rapacity of their servants, and the attacks of Hyder-Ali, a petty chief, who had raised himself to the rank of a sovereign prince : and Ireland had shown a determination to have her parliament unfettered, by obtaining the octennial act, which limited its duration to eight years, it previously having been dissolved only on the demise of the crown. Lord Chatham soon felt, from his declining health, that it was wise to retire, the duke of Grafton imitated his example, and lord North succeeded, 1770. This frequent change of ministry greatly affected the English character on the continent ; and even in England there was a general disposition to distrust the government, and to disobey the laws, when it was observed that opinion fluctuated with the passing hour. The capture of Corsica by the French, after its revolt from the Genoese, without any interposition on the part of the British, was another cause of complaint ; and lord North saw the public discontent increased beyond measure, when the partition of Poland between Germany, Russia, and Prussia, was effected, 1772. In domestic

matters, too, he was harassed by the violence with which one or two questions were agitated. It had been deemed a breach of privilege to publish the debates in parliament; but those connected with the Middlesex election had been freely given to the public at all risks; and when the printers were arrested, the lord mayor (Brass Crosby) and Wilkes and Oliver, who were aldermen, declared the measure to be illegal, and threatened the commons' messenger with imprisonment if he detained the parties. Crosby and Oliver were accordingly sent to the Tower, and Wilkes was summoned to the bar of the house, on the 8th of April, 1771; but the house, fearing the effects of such a proceeding, adjourned its meeting until the following day, and thus virtually renounced its wish to forbid the free printing of the debates. From that period to the present day they have been regularly reported. The marriage-act, which prevents the royal family from marrying subjects, occupied a large share of the minister's time, 1772: no descendant of George II. was to marry before twenty-five, and then not without the consent of the king in council; an arrangement which, as a prince is permitted to *reign* at eighteen, led to numerous jests, that were printed and sung in every direction, all ending with the maxim, that 'it was easier far to manage a kingdom than a wife.'

But the aspect of American affairs was yet more saddening. Troops had been sent into several of the chief cities, to awe the rebellious; and at Boston, three sloops laden with tea (one of the taxed articles in the port) were boarded by armed men in disguise, 1773, who threw the whole of the cargoes overboard, and then commenced a contest with the soldiery, in which numerous lives were lost. The celebrated Dr. Franklin was soon after sent over by the state of Massachusetts, praying the king to remove two obnoxious governors; and Mr. Wedderburne, the solicitor-general, being deputed to examine into the case, proved that the petition was vexatious; so that the doctor was sent back, deprived of his office of postmaster-general, and angrily declaring, as he left the council-room, that he would never put on again the clothes he then wore, until he had received satisfaction. Nearly nine years after, he dressed himself in this suit, when he went to sign the treaty of Paris, which for ever deprived England of her power over the United States. A general congress of the American provinces assembled at Philadelphia, 1774, and at length, by a petition to the new parliament of 1775, endeavoured to conciliate the government; but the houses declared, in their address to the king, that a rebellion already existed in Massachusetts, and that they would assist his majesty to suppress it with lives and fortune. Mr. Burke and other members laboured hard to avert the hazards of a contest; but the die was now cast, and the Bostonians having assailed the British troops at Lexington, April 19, 1775, war was formally declared. A tremendous conflict ensued at a place called Bunker's-hill, June 17, where the British under general Howe were victorious; but not without the loss of 1000 men. George Washington was hereupon chosen generalissimo of the American army; and on the 4th of July, 1776, the congress published its declaration of independence. General Howe, aided by the fleet of his brother, lord Howe, and by general Burgoyne, made it doubtful, from time to time, whether the English would not be in the end victorious; but divided counsels at home, the unceasing vigour of Washington, and the acknowledgment by France 1778, Spain 1779, and by Holland 1780, of the independence of the United States, made it evident that the colonists would soon gain their end. Still the spirit of the English nation was unbroken; and when the Americans refused their offer of reconciliation, renewed ardour seemed to possess the British troops in America. Under sir Henry Clinton and lord Cornwallis, in South Carolina, so great was the impression made upon the colonists, that they considered their cause utterly hopeless; and Arnold, one of their chiefs in com-

mand, deserted to the royal cause, 1780. The acquisition, however, of this deserter, cost the life of one of Britain's bravest officers. Major André, having been sent to conduct the negotiation with Arnold, was unfortunately seized within the American lines, and hanged as a spy. In 1781 lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender to the enemy at York-town; and in 1782, lord North being succeeded in the ministry by Mr. Fox and the marquis of Rockingham, the independence of the United States was acknowledged.

The sudden death of the marquis of Rockingham in the same year, caused another change in the government: lord Shelburne was premier a few months; when Mr. Fox and lord North, having entered into a coalition, forced themselves into the royal councils, in spite of the secret dislike of the king; and they were about to pass a bill to regulate India affairs, when they were summarily dismissed. A new administration was again formed 1783, having Mr. William Pitt, second son of the earl of Chatham, chancellor of the exchequer; who soon proved the most important of its members. From this period till 1789, the principal events were a treaty of peace with France 1783, and with Holland 1784; the passing of a bill to regulate India affairs by Mr. Pitt himself 1785; the impeachment of Warren Hastings 1787; the re-establishment of the Stadtholder's authority in Holland by the king of Prussia, when threatened with rebellion by his subjects; the lamentable illness of his majesty, which incapacitated him for discharging the duties of government 1788; and a dispute between the English and Spaniards respecting Nootka Sound in North America, where the former had planted a small colony which the latter had seized, and which ended in an equitable convention. The king recovered, to the universal joy of the nation, 1789; and the attention of the people was immediately turned to a course of events, which to this day have not ceased to operate, and the history of which will be found in our next and concluding volume. We allude, of course, to the Great French Revolution, which, in its progress, effected a change in the system of government of almost every European state, and may be said therefore to have originated a new epocha.

EVENTS.

ST. VINCENT A BRITISH COLONY, 1762.—This isle was discovered by Columbus 1498, and is the most beautiful of the Caribbees. It is 18 miles long, and 11 broad; and French and English frequently contested the right of possession from 1672 to 1762, when admiral Rodney captured it for George III. The Caribs having been left unmolested on the isle, they rose upon the English 1772, and were with difficulty put down; and in 1779 they conspired with the French of Martinico, and completely drove them out. Just as the two parties had got possession, a terrible hurricane devastated the island, 1780, destroying the church, and all the better sort of buildings. St. Vincent was restored to England at the peace of 1783; at which time it contained 61 sugar estates, besides other small

plantations of cotton, coffee, and cocoa. In 1795, the doctrines of liberty and equality, which prevailed in France, were disseminated in the West India islands, through the agency of the infamous Victor Hugues; whose emissaries excited the Caribs and some of the French inhabitants to commence an agitation, which continued for upwards of two years. By the judicious measures of sir Ralph Abercrombie and general Hunter, the French were at length subdued, and the Caribs removed to Ruattan, in the bay of Honduras. In 1812, St. Vincent suffered from a three days' eruption of the Souffriere volcanic mountain, which had been tranquil for nearly a century: a column of smoke (30 days after the destruction of the Caraccas by an earthquake) burst from the crater,

and the isle was covered with small ashes. The mountains of St. Vincent are abrupt in their terminations, with deep intervening romantic glens; the island generally being bound by a lofty and rocky coast. The beautiful valley of Bucament, however, (five miles long and one wide) is entirely open to the sea, with lofty mountains at the rear and sides; and there is a large tract of land at the base of the Souffriere, gradually declining towards the sea, which forms an extensive plain of upwards of 6000 acres, and is the most productive land in the colony. The rule of the island is in a governor, with a council of 12, and an assembly of 19 members; and the governors have been—1763, gen. Melville; 1771, gen. Leyborne; 1776, V. Morris; 1783, E. Lincoln; 1787, J. Seton; 1798, W. Bentinck; 1799, D. Outley; 1805, H. W. Bentinck; 1806, sir R. Beckwith; 1807, R. Paul; 1812, sir C. Brisbane; 1816, R. Paul; 1817, sir C. Brisbane; 1829, sir W. J. Struth; 1831, sir G. F. Hill; 1834, capt George Tyler. The articles of export are sugar, rum, molasses, arrowroot, coffee, cocoa, and cotton; and all the fruits of the most favoured West India isles are to be found in profusion at St. Vincent.

GRENADA A BRITISH COLONY, 1762. This isle, which is 60 miles from the continent of South America, is 25 miles long and 12 broad, and was discovered by Columbus, 1498, who named it after the Spanish province of Granada. As it was then peopled by fierce Caribs, he left it alone; but the French, under Du Perquet, governor of Martinique, by stratagem got a footing amongst the natives 1650, and soon after, in the most unjustifiable manner, exterminated them by fire and sword, not sparing even the women and children. 'Forty of the Caribbees,' writes Père Du Tertre, 'were massacred on the spot. About 40 others, who had escaped the sword, ran towards a precipice, from whence they cast themselves headlong into the sea, and perished.

A beautiful girl of twelve or thirteen, who was taken alive, became the object of dispute between two of our officers, each claiming her as his prize; a third coming up, put an end to the contest, by shooting the girl through the head. The place from which the barbarians threw themselves into the sea has been ever since called *Le Morne de Sauteurs*. The French commenced the cultivation of sugar on the isle, but were compelled to yield their settlement to the British, 1762, and receive St. Lucia in its stead. The general aspect of Grenada is picturesque, though mountainous; and from one chain of elevations, especially from a magnificent spot in the centre of the island, called '*Le Grand Etang*,' numerous small rivers and streamlets have their source, irrigating the country in every direction. One of the most prominent features in this romantic district is mount St. Catharine (*Morne Michel*) which, clothed with a splendid vegetation, towers to an altitude of 3200 feet above the ocean level. The capital is St. George; the rule is in a lieutenant-governor, a council of nine, and an assembly of twenty-seven; and the governors have been, 1764, general Rob. Melville; 1768, Ulysses Fitzmaurice; 1770, gen. R. Melville; 1771, F. Corsar; 1771, W. Leybourne; 1775, W. Young; 1776, Sir G. Macartney; 1784, gen. E. Matthew; 1785, W. Lucas; 1787, S. Williams; 1788, J. Campbell; 1789, S. Williams; 1793, N. Home; 1795, S. Williams; 1796, A. Houston; 1797, colonel C. Green; 1798, S. Mitchell; 1801, rev. S. Dent; 1802, G. V. Hobart; 1803, general Clephane; 1803, rev. S. Dent; 1804, A. C. Adye; 1805, general F. Maitland; 1807, J. Harvey; 1808, A. C. Adye; 1810, general F. Maitland; 1810, A. C. Adye; 1812, col. G. R. Ainslie; 1813, J. Harvey; 1813, sir C. Shipley; 1815, G. Paterson; 1816, gen. Phineas Riall; 1817, A. Houston; 1821, gen. P. Riall; 1821, G. Paterson; 1826, sir J. Campbell; 1829, A. Houston; 1831, F. Pal-

mer. The staple produce consists of sugar, rum, molasses, coffee, cocoa, and cotton.

DEATH OF CALAS, 1762.—JEAN Calas, a protestant of Toulouse, had a son, a Roman catholic, who committed suicide. Without proof of any kind, the wretched parent was tortured, and then broken alive upon the wheel, on the presumption that he had murdered his child because of his change of religion. Voltaire taking up the cause afterwards, a general conviction of the man's innocence spread throughout France; and the widow was pensioned, and every attempt made to restore peace of mind to the other survivors of the family.

THE FALKLAND ISLES MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1765.—These isles 90 in number, of which the most important are Soledad and West Falkland, are near the straits of Magellan: the two largest are 100 miles long, and 50 broad. They were discovered by sir Richard Hawkins 1594, but not appropriated till 1765; when commodore Byron took possession of them in the name of George III., and named them after viscount Falkland, who fell on the side of Charles I. in the civil war. After much debate as to the prior right of sovereignty, between France, Spain, and England, and even a war in 1770 with Spain, the claim of Great Britain was acknowledged; and the islands were then partially colonised by the latter. West Falkland isle, the more important of the two largest, has a good port; and the Spaniards of South America appear to have made the spot a sort of Botany-bay for their settlements in the western world. All the vegetables, and most of the fruits of Europe, succeed in the soil of all the isles; but it is singular that there are no trees of indigenous growth. Peat and turf are abundant, and serve for firing; the soil also produces naturally celery, a very long grass, and what sailors call the tea-plant; the latter is every where abundant, growing close to the ground, and producing a berry of the size of a large

pea. The leaves are said to be, if any thing, superior to those of the known teas in flavour. The resinous gum-plant is the most curious production of the island; being a sort of fungus, six feet in diameter and eighteen inches high, without stalk, branches, or leaves. Its surface emits globules of a tough, resinous matter, yellow in colour, of the size of a pea, and with the odour of turpentine. The only wild animal found on East Falkland isle was a wolf-fox, exceedingly fierce, insomuch that it pursued some sailors to their boat. Sea-lions, walruses, and seals are abundant about the coast; many of them of great size, and very fierce. Swans, wild geese, ducks, teal, and all kinds of sea-fowl are found in great numbers; and so tame were some of the birds when the settlers first landed there, that they would suffer themselves to be caught by the hand, and often perch upon the heads of the people. Fish, however, are not plentiful, being probably discovered by these amphibious creatures; but such as there are (mullet, pike, and a green trout without scales) are of fine quality. The tides produce a curious phenomenon; they do not rise at the settled calculated periods, but just before high-water the sea rises and falls three times; and this motion is always more violent during the equinoxes and full moons; at which time several corallines, the finest mother-of-pearl, and the most delicate sponges are thrown up. A second colonization of the isle is now arranging, under the auspices of the British government, 1842.

THE ENGLISH ACKNOWLEDGED SOVEREIGN IN HINDUSTAN, 1765, through the instrumentality and abilities of lord Clive. (*See British India.*)

THE ISLE OF MAN annexed to the British crown, 1765.

WILKES'S RIOTS, 1768.—When Mr. Wilkes had returned from the continent, and been sentenced to an imprisonment, of 22 months, the lower orders who had regarded him as their

champion, still imagined that, as a member of parliament, he must be liberated when the commons should assemble. Accordingly a vast mob collected round the king's-bench prison on the day of opening, with the intention of escorting him in triumph to Westminster. The Surrey justices called out the yeomanry, and read the riot act, as the crowd refused to disperse; and upon the soldiers being ordered to fire, one man was killed, and many wounded, several of whom died soon after. It happened that a Scotch regiment had been employed in the business, and the circumstance greatly increased the anger of the mob: but although the offenders, on being tried, were pronounced guilty, the government not only protected them, but obtained Mr. Wilkes's expulsion from the commons. He was re-elected, having 1148 votes, and Mr. Luttrell only 269; but the house was resolved, and Mr. Luttrell chosen. Wilkes after this became a London alderman and lord mayor, and eventually took his seat for Middlesex. As chamberlain of London, a lucrative post, he devoted himself to the duties of his office; but he was a vacillating, unstable character, without much principle:—at one time the factious demagogue, at another the obsequious attendant at levees, and, as was said of him by one who knew him well, 'no man could depend on him.'—(*See his life.*)

ERUPTION OF VESUVIUS, 1769.—The hon. Mr. Hamilton, who saw it, thus writes: 'It is now known, that when water comes in contact with the iron and sulphur found to exist in the neighbourhood of all volcanoes, it produces a fire more or less violent, in proportion to the quantity of those substances. If their action cause a heaving in the earth's surface, like the waves of the sea, it is called an earthquake. When the fire rushes, however, with irresistible force, to find a passage, and bursts an opening for itself, it is then a volcano. Vesuvius was quiet till March, when it

began to throw up stones from time to time. In April the throws were more frequent; and, at night, the smoke which hung over its mouth was tinged by the reflection of the fire within. On the 12th of September the lava began to flow down the sides of the mountain; and by this time the throws were much more frequent, and the red-hot stones went above 1000 feet high; so as to take up ten seconds in their fall. The lava continued to run in small streams, till the 8th of October; and on the 19th, at seven in the morning, a thick black smoke began to issue from the mountain, in the midst of which, at short intervals, a volley of great stones was shot up to an immense height. The column of smoke, after having mounted an extraordinary height, bent with the wind towards Capree, and reached over that island, twenty-eight miles from Vesuvius. Before eight o'clock on the same morning, the mountain had opened a mouth without noise, about 100 yards lower than the ancient crater, towards the mount di Somma; and as soon as the lava had vent, the smoke no longer came out with violence from the top.

'As I imagined there would be now no danger in approaching the mountain, I went up, accompanied by one person, and was making my observations, when on a sudden, about noon, I heard a violent noise within the mountain, and at about a quarter of a mile distant, the mountain split; and, with much noise, a fountain of liquid fire shot up from this new mouth, and, like a torrent, rolled on directly towards us. The earth shook, the pumice-stones fell thick upon us, and clouds of black smoke and ashes caused an almost total darkness; the explosions from the top of the mountain were much louder than any thunder, and the smell of the sulphur was horribly offensive. My guide, alarmed, took to his heels: and I being obliged to follow, we ran nearly three miles without stopping. As the earth conti-

nued to shake under our feet, I was apprehensive of the opening of a fresh mouth, or of the fall of the rocks off Somma, either of which might have cut off our retreat. Having reached my home, I found my family in great alarm, at the continual and violent explosions; so that we removed from our villa to Naples. In my way thither, I observed that the lava had covered three miles of the very road along which I had retreated; and I have since heard that its depth was sixty or seventy feet, and in some places nearly two miles broad.

'The confusion at Naples that night cannot be described; all the churches were open, and crowded with terrified people. On the 20th the smoke and ashes of the volcano spread every where over the city, and even reached ships sixty miles distant at sea; and the sun appeared as through a thick fog. The thundering noise of the mountain began with more violence on the 22d than on the preceding days; insomuch that the oldest men declared they had never heard the like; but on the 24th the lava ceased running, when its length, from the spot where it broke out to its extremity, was found to be six miles; in some places two miles broad, and in most seventy feet deep. Having entered a hollow way, not less than 200 feet deep and 100 broad, it speedily filled it up. On the 25th small ashes fell all day at Naples; and a vast column of black smoke issued from the crater, accompanied by continual flashes of forked lightning. On the 27th there were no signs of eruption whatever.'

THE SAND FLOODS OF ARABIA, 1769.—Mr. Bruce thus describes one which he witnessed in Arabia this year: 'At one o'clock we alighted among some acacia-trees, and were here surprised and terrified by a sight surely one of the most magnificent in the world. In that vast expanse of desert, we saw a number of prodigious pillars of sand at different distances, at times moving with great celerity, at others stalking on with

a majestic slowness: at intervals, we thought they were coming in a few minutes to overwhelm us; and small quantities of sand did actually more than once reach us. Again they would retreat, so as to be almost out of sight, their tops reaching to the very clouds. The tops often separated from the bodies; and these, once disjoined, dispersed in the air, and did not appear more. Sometimes they were broken near the middle, as if struck by a large cannon-shot. About noon they began to advance with considerable swiftness upon us, the wind being very strong at north. Eleven of them ranged alongside of us, about the distance of three miles. The greatest diameter of the largest appeared to me at that distance as if it would measure ten feet. They retired from us with a wind at south-east, leaving an impression upon my mind to which I can give no name, though surely one ingredient in it was fear, with a considerable deal of wonder. It was in vain to think of flying; the swiftest horse, or fastest sailing ship, could be of no use to carry us out of this danger; and the full persuasion of this riveted us to the spot where we stood. On the vast ocean, analogous to this, is the *waterspout*. A vessel, with a large crew and company, was recently sailing in the midst of the Atlantic, the wind blowing rather stiffly, when all on board were not less astonished than alarmed, to behold suddenly astern, driving forwards with fearful rapidity, an immense mountain of water, far higher than the mainmast, of proportionable bulk, and inconceivably majestic and terrible. 'Every body,' said lieutenant Prince, 'rushed on deck, to behold this terrible phenomenon; the ship was instantly put out of her course to avoid being overwhelmed; and this mountain of water, at least 800 feet high, and which looked as if many square leagues of ocean had been gathered up in it, swept harmlessly past us, and pursued its onward course, apparently unbroken, and

without diminution, till we lost sight of it in the distance.' Waterspouts eventually either ascend into the clouds in form of vapour, or fall, after breaking in the midst, as violent rain, upon the earth, or into the sea. Both the sand-flood and waterspout appear to be the result of electric action upon the air, and to be the so generated whirlwind acting simply upon whatever comes by accident in its way. Of the *Simoom*, or hot wind of the African deserts, Mr. Bruce thus writes in the same year: 'At eleven o'clock, while we contemplated with great pleasure the rugged top of Chiggre, where we hoped to solace ourselves with plenty of good water, Idris, our guide, cried out with a loud voice, 'Fall upon your faces, for here is the *Simoom*!' I saw from the south-east a haze come, in colour like the purple part of the rainbow, but not so compressed or thick. It did not occupy twenty yards in breadth, and was about twelve feet high from the ground. It was a kind of blush upon the air, and it moved very rapidly; for I scarce could turn to fall upon the ground, with my head to the northward, when I felt the heat of its current upon my face. We all lay flat upon the ground, as if dead, till Idris told us it had blown over. The meteor which I saw had indeed passed over; but the light air that still blew was of a heat to threaten suffocation. For my part, I found distinctly in my breath that I had imbibed a part of it; nor was I free from an asthmatic sensation, till I had been some months in Italy, nearly two years afterwards.'

IRRUPTION OF SOLWAY MOSS, 1771. Bogs filled with peat-moss, like those of Ireland, originate in stagnant pools of water, which generate successive crops of minute plants on their surface, and each dying after the other, a matted bed is at length formed, growing to a vast height, and in irregular forms, under which the mass of water still continues. Long-continued rains occasioned that of Solway, in a vale by the ri-

ver Esk, to burst, and overflow 800 acres of arable land: the inundation, which began in the night, destroyed twenty-seven habitations; but the families were fortunate enough to escape. The antiseptic power of bogs is very remarkable; animal bodies being preserved in them, as if in spirits, for years. In 1840, the body of one Betty Thompson, who had been missing from her home in the county of Donegal since 1811, was discovered in Ballikinurd bog, Fannet, with the lineaments of her face unchanged, the limbs perfectly elastic, and even the clothes uninjured by the lapse of 30 years. The woman had evidently been murdered; as her throat was cut, her hair and a ribbon encircling her head were stained with blood, and her left arm was broken.

THE SOCIETY OF JESUITS SUPPRESSED, 1773, by Pope Clement XIV. It has been shown (vol. ii., p. 39) that the Order of Jesus was founded by Loyola, 1540, to protect the Church from further encroachments, when her reformation had been commenced by Luther. About 1561 the society so established by pope Paul III., obtained letters patent from Francis II. to open colleges and schools in France; but as the Jesuits taught gratis, the university of Paris, whose lectures were paid for, was jealous of them, and attacked them repeatedly before the parliament, as an institution contrary to the laws, and dangerous to the state. 'But this being the time of the great religious and civil war in France, the belief (says De Thou) that the Jesuits were born to destroy protestantism, made the parliament and French prelates wink at their introduction into the kingdom, at least until further deliberation.' During the wars of the League, the Jesuits, in common with the Sorbonne, the parliament, and the monastic orders, opposed the cause of Henri IV., on account of his being a protestant: nevertheless Henri, when king, recalled the Society, observing to the president, De Harlay, who

remonstrated against the measure, that 'the Jesuits ought no longer to be charged with the crimes of the League, which were the error of the times; and as every state thought them useful in the education of youth, he should not shut the door against them.' This was in 1604, and they remained in France till 1764. Into England they found their way in Elizabeth's time, but were accused of plotting her death; and in James's time Garnet was executed as one concerned in the gunpowder-plot. The chiefs of the Society nevertheless asserted that no reason, political or religious, could justify an attempt against the life of any man, however heretical; De Thou and other writers, violently opposed to the Jesuits, affirm such were their sincere declarations; and these and other similar instances show that, in so numerous a body as the Society became, men of various tempers and opinions must be found, some of whom, through a strained casuistry, or fanatical zeal, arrived at different conclusions from those of the more sober and more honest part of the community. Regarded as missionaries for the instruction of heathen nations in the knowledge of the true God, the Jesuits are certainly entitled to the respect of their Christian brethren, both catholic and protestant. In that labour of love they sacrificed wealth, dignity, health; being in the main men of birth and rank, who gave up houses, lands, family, and country, for the gospel's sake. By Portuguese Jesuits Christianity was introduced into Hindustan, Japan, and China, 1580. The Japanese missionaries brought on themselves destruction (p. 524), 1637; but those of China maintained their ground; and their house at Pekin remains to this day. But the greatest field of Jesuit enterprise was Paraguay. South America had been devastated by its Spanish conquerors, and the native Indians hunted as wild animals, previously to the arrival of the Jesuits; who obtained from the court of Spain a declaration that all their

Indian proselytes should be considered freemen, and under their political government. Having in time formed a flourishing colony on the banks of the Paraguay and Parana (amounting to 200,000), they governed it for a century and a half in peace and happiness; keeping the members in the condition of docile but contented pupils, directing their labours, and instructing them in the useful arts, but not in the refinements or luxuries of Europe. There were no taxes nor lawsuits in Paraguay; each able-bodied man had a moderate task to perform; and the produce of their common labour provided for the wants of all. Writers of very different opinions—Raynal, Montesquieu, Robertson, Southey—have done justice to the paternal administration of the Jesuits of Paraguay. But it is a remarkable instance of political injustice, that the very benefits they were thus imparting to mankind, should have been made the pretext for their ruin. In 1750 Spain, by a treaty with Portugal, thought proper to give up seven districts of Paraguay to the latter power, in exchange for a territory which the Portuguese had occupied on the left bank of the river Plate; and the Spanish government ordered the Jesuits and their Indian pupils to abandon their homes, and remove to some other part of the Spanish territories. The fathers in vain remonstrated against the cruelty of expelling men from the fields which they had by their labour reclaimed from the wilderness: the harsh mandate was repeated, and the Jesuits were prepared to obey. But the natives to a man refused to submit, and resisted the Portuguese and Spanish forces which were sent against them; and though a subsequent change in the diplomatic relations of the two countries left the Indians in possession of their country, yet the Jesuits were falsely accused of having encouraged what was styled 'the rebellion.' The Spanish government, however, after mature investigation, acquitted

them; but the Portuguese minister, Pombal, a harsh and unprincipled man, affected to believe in the rebellious spirit of the fathers, whom he wished to expel from Portugal, because he was jealous of their influence. An attempt by some nobleman to murder the king (Joseph) was charged upon them, because father Malagrida, one of the Society, was confessor of some of the guilty. As proof, however, could not be obtained against Malagrida, he was accused of heresy, on account of some ascetic works he had published, condemned by the Inquisition, and executed; and in September 1759, the minister, in the king's name, gave an order for the expulsion of the Society from the Portuguese territories. The mandate was executed with the greatest inhumanity, both in Portugal and Brazil; the fathers being shipped off with indecent hurry, like so many cattle, on board ships bound for Italy, where they were landed in a state of utter destitution. France followed in the course of proscription. The Jesuits had made themselves many enemies in that country, by their long and bitter persecution of the Jansenists; but the enmity of the king's mistress, Madame de Pompadour, was the proximate cause of their fall. That intriguing woman wished to remain at court under some more decorous name than that of 'concubine' to Louis XV. She solicited the appointment of lady of honour to the queen; and in order to strengthen her application, she chose for her confessor Father de Sacy, a Jesuit, who had great reputation for exemplary conduct. She pretended that she had dropped all intercourse with the king, and that she was really penitent. De Sacy, however, did not allow of any equivocation; he told the lady that, if her penitence were sincere, she must quit the court altogether, as La Vallière had done under Louis XIV. The result may be easily guessed. Madame dismissed the too rigid Jesuit, remained at court, and from that moment became the de-

clared enemy of the Order. An excuse was found for issuing an edict, 1764, declaring the existence of an independent body like the Society dangerous to the state, and confiscating the property of its members. The fall of the Jesuits in Spain took place three years later. The credulous Charles III. was persuaded by Choiseul, and other enemies of all religious functionaries, that an insurrection, which had broke out in Madrid, 1766, against the ministry, was the work of the Jesuits. Accordingly, at midnight of March 31, 1767, the colleges and houses of the Society throughout Spain were surrounded by troops; sentinels were posted at every door; the bells were secured; and king's commissioners having roused and assembled the respective communities in the refectory, read to them aloud the royal decree, which expelled them from Spain. The members, having taken their breviaries, and some linen, were placed in carriages, and escorted by cavalry to the coast, where they were embarked for Italy. After being refused admittance into several harbours, and kept for months on board crowded ships, during which many of the aged and infirm died, the survivors were at last landed in Corsica. The Society still continued in Sardinia and the papal states; but on the election of Pope Ganganelli, 1769, France and other powers insisted in strong terms on the final suppression of the Order. Ganganelli proceeded with caution; he took three years to consider the matter; and at length, in 1773, issued a bull, in which, after descanting on the services it had rendered religion, he declared the Society of Jesus and its statutes annulled. Two powers only, after the promulgation of this ordinance, one protestant, and the other Greek schismatic (Prussia and Russia), allowed the fathers an asylum in their domains, and continued to intrust them with the education of their Catholic subjects. The general of the Society, Father Ricci, was confined in the castle of

St. Angelo, being suspected of still assuming in secret his former authority over the dispersed members, and also of having concealed sums belonging to the Society; but as, in a close investigation, nothing transpired against him, he was treated with some courtesy, but kept in confinement till his death, 1775. On his death-bed, before receiving the sacrament, he signed a solemn though mild protest on behalf of the extinct Society, 'the conduct of which,' he said, 'to the best of his knowledge, had not afforded grounds for its suppression, nor had he himself given any reason for his imprisonment: he ended by forgiving sincerely all who had contributed to either.'

The prejudices against the Jesuits in Protestant countries have arisen naturally enough from their professed hostility to protestantism; but the best way to obtain an estimate of the general character of the disciples of Loyola, is to take a brief review of their conduct as moral and scholastic teachers, about which there is in England great ignorance. Throughout all Catholic states, they established the first rational system of college education. Their colleges were equally open to the noble and the plebeian; all were subject to the same discipline, received the same instruction, partook of the same plain, but wholesome diet, might attain the same rewards, and were subject to the same punishments. In the school, the refectory, or the play-ground, no one could have distinguished the son of a duke from the son of a peasant. The manners of the Jesuits too were singularly pleasing, urbane, and courteous; far removed from pedantry, moroseness, and affectation. Few indeed were their pupils who contracted not a lasting attachment for their masters; and at the time of their suppression, the grief of the youths of the various colleges at separating from them, was universal, and truly affecting. Most of the distinguished men of the eighteenth century, even those who afterwards

turned free-thinkers, and railed at the Jesuits as a society, had received their first education from them; and some of them have had the frankness to acknowledge the merits of their instructors. The sceptical Lalande paid them an honest tribute of esteem and of regret at their fall; even Voltaire spoke in their defence; and Gresset addressed to them a most pathetic valedictory poem, 'Les Adieux.' The bishop De Bausset, in his 'Vie de Fénelon,' has inserted a most eloquent account of their mode of instruction, and of their influence in preserving social and domestic peace and harmony. For the Society did not exclusively apply themselves to the instruction of youth: grown-up people voluntarily sought their advice in the affairs and pursuits of life, which they always freely bestowed. They encouraged the timid and weak; they directed the disheartened and the forsaken towards new paths for which they saw that they were qualified; and whenever they perceived abilities, good-will, and honesty, they were sure to lend a helping hand. In private life at least, whatever may have been the case in courtly politics, their advice was generally most disinterested; and it has been observed 'that they excelled in the art of taming man, which they effected, not by violence, not by force, but by persuasion, by kindness, and by appealing to the feelings of their pupils; and that if ever mankind could be happy in a state of mental subordination and tutelage, under kind and considerate guardians, the Jesuits were the men to produce this result.'—(*See Restoration of the Jesuits.*)

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION BEGAN, 1775; of which an account is given in the Parallel Reigns.

HURRICANE IN THE WEST INDIES, 1776.—This was the most terrible visitation of the kind on record, and appears to have reached not only to every island of the West Indies, but to the mainland of both north and south America. These destructive

phenomena are now believed to arise from electricity, though the manner in which the fluid acts is by no means known: even the most gentle gales of wind are presumed to be produced from the same cause. The ruin and desolation accompanying a hurricane cannot accurately be described. Like fire, the wind's resistless force consumes every thing in its track, in the most terrible and rapid manner. The sky is suddenly overcast and wild, the sea rises at once from a profound calm into mountains; the wind rages and roars like the noise of cannon; the rain descends in a deluge; the roofs of houses are carried to vast distances from their walls; large trees are torn up by the roots, and hurled aloft in the air; while terror and consternation seize upon and distract all animated creatures.

EXECUTION OF DR. DODD, 1777. This unhappy person had been long celebrated as a preacher, and for his theological writings. Having unhappily contracted expensive habits of living, he forged a bond to support his credit, consoling himself with the hope that he might be able to repay its amount without detection. The person whose name he thus criminally presumed to falsify, was the earl of Chesterfield; to whom he had been tutor, and who, he flattered himself, would generously pay the money, should the fraud be discovered. But his noble pupil appeared against him; and though a petition in his behalf was presented to the king, signed by 27,000 respectable individuals, he was executed at Tyburn, 1777. In writing of him after that event, Dr. Johnson thus speaks: 'Of his public ministry, the means of judging were sufficiently attainable. He must be allowed to preach well, whose sermons strike his audience with forcible conviction. Of his life, those who thought it consistent with his doctrine, did not decide originally from false notions. He was at first what he endeavoured to make

others; but the world broke down his resolution, and he in time ceased to exemplify his own instructions. Let those who are tempted to his faults, tremble at his punishment; and those whom he impressed from the pulpit with religious sentiments, endeavour to confirm them, by considering the regret and self-abhorrence with which he reviewed in prison his deviations from rectitude.'

The error of this gifted man was mainly attributable to the folly of 'keeping up appearances'—to the painful, and hopeless, and too common effort, to maintain the external show of belonging to a condition of fortune several grades higher than the one in which Providence has placed us. The excuse for this dangerous propensity is on every body's tongue: 'I was born a gentleman, have been educated a gentleman, have married as a gentleman, have brought up my children hitherto as the children of such: ought I then to sink my family, to reduce them to a grade beneath that wherein they drew breath, by forcing them into employments derogatory to their rank?' and so forth. The simple question is, ought we to prefer seeing our children in a state of wretched dependence and miserable poverty, rather than place them in some profession useful to their fellow-creatures, and employing and lucrative to themselves? To behold them poor, listless, timeserving gentlemen, ever looking for some pitiful post under government, which they may never get, and which, when obtained, insures to the possessor nothing more certainly than years of dull and monotonous fag—all his hopes being built on the death of seniors, before whom, comfortable as they are in their secure, and probably honourably obtained offices, and harassed, and straitened, and fretted as he is in his subservient, and ill-paid one, he is likely himself to die—is exactly what the anxious parent, who reflects and feels, would pray to prevent. To depend too on the compassion of

friends, or even on that of relations, is equally opposed to good sense and a manly course. The circumstances of friends, the feelings of relations, may change; and what is to be done then? No, no: if fortune shine not upon us, He who is the giver of all good will bless the industrious self-helping son of the gentle and the worthy; and, like the children of the husbandman, who directed them to dig his field to find the treasure, the reward shall be to him in the digging. Let him but persevere, and ere long he shall see himself the joyous master of olive-yards, and vine-yards, eating of the fat, and drinking of the sweet; and all with the delicious consciousness of having been, with God's blessing and assistance, the architect of his own and his children's prosperity. (*See William Dodd.*)

ASSASSINATION OF MISS RAY.—This event occasioned much noise at the time. Mr. Hackman, after being in the army, took holy orders: he shot at Miss Ray, an actress, with a pistol, and killed her, as she was coming out of Covent Garden theatre, 1779. She was the kept mistress of John, earl of Sandwich; and jealousy, it is said, prompted the act of the murderer, who was executed for the deed, and his body was buried in Elstree churchyard, where the murdered Weare was in later days interred.

LORD GEORGE GORDON'S RIOT, 1780.—A pretended protestant association, with lord George Gordon at its head, had affected to be alarmed in consequence of an act passed for relieving the Roman catholics from certain disabilities laid upon them by William III.; and they presented a petition for its repeal, signed by above 100,000 persons, to the commons, on the second of June. In the course of that day, several lords and commoners, supposed to be favourable to the catholics, were insulted by the populace; a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian and other Romish cha-

pels were pulled down; and so many like outrages were committed, that it was found expedient to draw out the military. On the fifth day, a popish school and three priests' houses were destroyed. On the sixth, the mob were so riotous before the houses of parliament, that they were obliged to adjourn; and in the evening, when the keeper of Newgate refused to deliver up some imprisoned rioters, they set fire to his house and the gaol, and liberated 300 prisoners. They then proceeded to the Bank, which they would have plundered but for the exertions of Mr. Wilkes. In the evening, lord Mansfield, sir John Fielding, and several private persons, had their houses burned or pulled down. On the next day, the King's Bench prison, the new Bridewell in St. George's Fields, the Fleet prison, some popish chapels, and several papists' houses, were destroyed. Fires were seen blazing in every part of the metropolis, and the lawless mob were exacting contributions from the citizens; while the magistrates, as if paralyzed, attempted nothing to check their progress. When soldiers were at length called into London from all quarters, the tumult necessarily subsided; but not before many had been shot in the conflict which ensued. During the riot, the mob compelled every householder to chalk the words 'No Popery' on his door; in default of which he was sure to have his windows broken. It was on this occasion that Grimaldi, father of the celebrated clown, wrote in large letters on the front of his house, in Little Russell-street, 'No religion at all.'

RODNEY'S VICTORY, 1782.—On the 12th of April, admiral Rodney engaged the French fleet under count de Grasse, who, in conjunction with the Spaniards, had seized Minorca, together with Nevis and St. Christopher's in the West Indies. The conflict took place near Guadaloupe, and lasted twelve hours;

when four French ships were taken, including the admiral's, one was sunk, and one blew up. Sixteen more were captured some days afterwards, by admirals Hood and Barrington.

LOSS OF THE ROYAL GEORGE.—In 1782 a fleet was fitting out at Portsmouth for the relief of the garrison at Gibraltar, which had long held out against the fleets of Spain, when the Royal George, an old ship of 100 guns, that had carried the flag of lords Anson, Rodney, and Hawke, and of admiral Boscawen, in the wars with France, was decreed to be careened, that is, the parts under water were to be inspected, lest, from the vessel's age, her timbers should be unsound. As time pressed, she was not moved into dock, but laid over on her side where she was,—in smooth water. The admiral (Kempenfelt), captain, officers, and crew, 900 persons, continued on board, as is usual in slight careenings, where no danger is apprehended; together with 300 women and children, relations of the seamen, and the full complement of guns, stores, and provisions. The work began August 29, by a gang of carpenters giving the ship *a parliament heel*, or, in language not nautical, the vessel was made to incline in the water just sufficiently to expose to view her lower timbers. It was afterwards stated that the workmen, finding it necessary to strip off a greater portion of the sheathing than was expected, in order to come at a certain leak, heeled her over a little more than was intended, and than possibly the commander knew. About ten in the morning, while admiral Kempenfelt was writing in his cabin, and the larger number of the people were between decks, no one dreading any harm, a sudden and unexpected squall threw the vessel entirely over on her side; when, her portholes being open, she filled, and sank so very quickly, that, as one of the survivors declared, 'he had only time to cry to his brother that she was going

down, when *down she went!*' A victualler, which lay alongside, was swallowed up in the whirlpool which the sudden plunge of so vast a body occasioned; and several small craft, though at a considerable distance, were in imminent danger of sharing the same fate. Admiral Kempenfelt (70 years of age), with a number of brave officers, and most of those who were between decks, perished. The guard, and the majority of the others upon deck, were more fortunate, being picked up by the boats of the fleet. About 300 in all, chiefly persons belonging to the ship's company, were saved; while from 900 to 1000 were drowned. The captain (Waghorne) was picked up, in a much injured condition; but his son, a lieutenant, having been below, perished. The whole of the women and children, having been between decks at the moment of the accident, were lost. The diving-bell has often been employed in recent years to bring up guns &c. from the sunken vessel, which, however, must be wholly removed before Spithead can be rendered an efficient roadstead for line-of-battle ships; the wreck having been a grievous and long-standing hindrance to that desirable issue. It is a curious fact that Mr. John Sandford, who had been in the navy, (brother of the bishop of Edinburgh,) being, at the time of the repair of the Royal George, on a visit to admiral Kempenfelt, ventured to remonstrate on that officer's profane habit of swearing. The admiral thanked him for his advice, and assured him *with an oath* that he would not so offend again. Mr. Sandford had left the vessel, and was in a boat near at hand, regarding, with a friend, the singular spectacle of the men at work upon her keel. It was a lovely day: the water was studded with pleasure-boats; and the decks of the admiral's ship were covered with the crew and women, busily engaged in washing their clothes. Observing the ship take a

lurch, Mr. Sandford looked round to his friend, observing, 'if she takes such another, she will assuredly go down;' and on turning his head again towards the Royal George, there was nothing to be seen of her but her large black keel, and a raging swell of waters!

SIEGE OF GIBRALTAR, 1782.—The Spaniards, in September, after long investing this fortress, began a vigorous attack upon it. General Elliot was in command, and spread ruin amongst the enemy's works: yet were the assailants determined to try their utmost to overcome the impediments with which nature and art seemed to deride their efforts. The preparations, as well by land as by water, were prodigious; and ten floating batteries, built at an enormous expense, were much relied on. These, however, by an incessant fire of red-hot balls from the besieged, were set in flames, and all in succession blown up. The destruction of human lives was dreadful, notwithstanding the efforts made, as well by the British as the Spaniards, to rescue the men from the flames and water. The enemy had now no chance of reducing the place, but by intercepting the supplies coming from Great Britain. But in October, lord Howe, with admirable seamanship, threw in the complement of necessities, in full view of the hostile fleet; whereon the latter raised the siege.

PENANG MADE AN ENGLISH COLONY, 1785. This picturesque spot, 16 miles long, and 12 broad, called also Prince of Wales's island, is on the west of the Malay peninsula, and is a highly valuable maritime and commercial station. The word Penang means in Malay the areca or betel-nut, which the shape of the island represents. The capital is Georgetown; the greater part of the island is level, though the north is mountainous; the east portion is covered with rice-fields; the south and west valleys are chiefly laid out in pepper-gardens and spice-plantations. Every where close to the

coast runs an extensive belt of cocoa-nut-trees; and, scattered over the island in various groups appear groves of the graceful areca-palm, or penang. The hills and low grounds, where not cultivated, are thickly covered with wood, and vegetation is every where splendidly luxuriant. In 1785, captain Light, commander of a country ship in India, having married the barbaric king of Quedah's daughter, received the island as a marriage-portion, and transferred it to the East India Company; who, having entered into a treaty with his Quedah majesty, (which was to last as long as the sun and moon gave light,) agreed to pay 10,000 dollars annually to him, in consideration of their receiving also the Wellesley province, on the main land, opposite Penang, a territory extending thirty-five miles along the coast. The chief trade of Penang is that of transit; but spices are greatly cultivated, and in 1818 the nutmeg-trees alone amounted to 6900. The Wellesley province is regarded as a portion of Penang; but Penang, Malacca, and Singapore are all subordinate to the presidency of Bengal. There are official residents, or governors, at all those stations; and the salary of the one at Singapore is the highest—36,000 rupees, (*i. e.* of silver, 2*l.* 6*d.* each.)

THE TRIAL OF MR. HASTINGS, 1787.—Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Burke, Mr. Fox, and several others, brought forward a bill for the impeachment of Warren Hastings, late governor-general of India, for high crimes and misdemeanours in the execution of his office, which passed with but little opposition. The consequent trial before the house of lords lingered out during the seven succeeding years, and ended in the acquittal of the accused. The main charge against him was connected with his treatment of the native princes and population of Hindustan; but there was clearly no foundation for such an accusation. Mr. Hastings, who had been educated at Westminster-school, and gone

early as a writer to India, retired with the wreck of his fortune, and an annuity from the company, to Daylesford, Worcestershire, where his family formerly had an estate, and where he passed the evening of his days in literary pursuits, dying 1818, aged 86.

MUTINY OF THE BOUNTY.—In 1787, the ship *Bounty* was fitted out by the English government, the command being given to lieutenant Bligh, to go to the South Sea islands for plants of the bread-fruit-tree, which afford to the inhabitants of Otaheite especially, the greater portion of their food. These he was to convey to our West India possessions, to attempt their growth for the support of the slave population. The bread-fruit grows on a tree to the size of a penny loaf, with a thick rind; and before ripe, it is gathered and baked in an oven, when the internal part is like the crumb of wheaten bread, and found to be equally nutritive. On the arrival of the *Bounty* off the Friendly Islands, on the 28th of April, a mutiny of some of the ship's officers and men broke forth, of which the following is the abridged narrative of the lieutenant: 'Just before sunrise on Tuesday the 28th, while I was asleep, Mr. Christian, officer of the watch, Charles Churchill, ship's corporal, John Mills, gunner's mate, and Thomas Burkitt, seaman, came into my cabin, and seizing me, tied my hands with a cord behind my back, threatening me with instant death if I made the least noise. I was hauled out of my bed, and forced on deck in my shirt, suffering great pain from the tightness with which they had tied my hands. The boatswain was ordered to hoist the launch out, and Mr. Hayward and Mr. Hallet, two of the midshipmen, and Mr. Samuel, were ordered into it. I demanded what their intention was in giving this order, and endeavoured to persuade the people near me not to persist in such acts of violence; when Christian threatened, with many oaths, to kill me if I would not be

quiet. Such of the officers and men as the mutineers wished to get rid of being already in the boat, Christian said, 'Come, captain Bligh, your officers and men are now in the boat, and you must go with them; if you attempt to make the least resistance, you will instantly be put to death;' and without further ceremony, my hands were untied, and I was forced over the side. Being in the boat, we were veered astern by a rope. A few pieces of pork were thrown to us, and some clothes; and it was then that the armourer and carpenters called out to me to remember that they had no hand in the transaction. I had with me in the boat, in all eighteen;—there remained in the *Bounty* twenty-five,—the most able of the ship's company.' The mode in which lieutenant Bligh succeeded in bringing safe to land his defenceless crew on the 14th of June at Timor, near New Holland, after more than 40 days' exposure, reflects the greatest credit upon his name: and he was promoted, on his return to England, to the rank of commander. The English government were no sooner acquainted with this atrocious act of piracy, than they sent out the *Pandora* frigate, under captain Edwards, with orders to visit the Society and Friendly Islands, and to use every endeavour to seize and bring home the delinquents. This voyage was in the sequel almost as disastrous as that of the *Bounty*, the ship being wrecked on her return, and the crew compelled to navigate 1000 miles in open boats; but the captain succeeded in taking fourteen of the mutineers, of whom ten were brought safe to England, the other four being drowned when the ship was wrecked. Twenty years had passed away, when sir Sidney Smith informed the Admiralty from Rio Janeiro, that captain Folger, of the ship *Topaz*, upon landing upon Pitcairn's island, found there an Englishman, named Alexander Smith, the only person remaining of nine that escaped in the *Bounty*. Smith re-

lated that, after putting captain Bligh into the boat, Christian went to Otaheite, where all hands left her but Christian, Smith, and seven others; who each took wives, and then proceeded to Pitcairn, where they ran the ship on shore, and broke her up. About four years after their arrival, the Otaheitans came and killed every Englishman except himself; in retaliation of which, the widows of the deceased Englishmen arose and put to death the Otaheitans that same night, so that Smith was the only man left alive upon the island, with eight or nine women, and several small children. The whole population amounted, at Folger's visit, to about thirty-five; who acknowledged Smith as their father and commander: and Folger was informed that Christian became insane shortly after his arrival on the island, and threw himself off the rocks into the sea. Nothing more was heard of this party until 1815, when sir Thomas Staines, in his passage from the Marquesas to Valparaiso, landed on the island, and found a venerable old man, John Adams, to be the only surviving Englishman of the Bounty's crew there; and his exemplary conduct, and fatherly care of the little colony, could not but command admiration. There being a dearth of water at Pitcairn, 1831, the people, eighty-one in number, were removed by a ship sent from New South Wales, to Otaheite, and were well received there by queen Pomarre; but when the British ship Challenger touched at Otaheite, 1833, the party, dreading the consequences of an epidemic disease, had returned to their own island, where captain Freemantle afterwards saw them, and, as he thought, a good deal the worse for their visit, having come back drunkards, and distillers of the tee-root.

NEW SOUTH WALES COLONIZED, 1788, BY THE ENGLISH.—Although the vast island of New Holland was discovered in part in the fifteenth century, captain Cook was the first to notice its coast called New South

Wales; and it being determined to ascertain if the place was healthy and convenient enough to admit a colony of English convicts, so as to rid the mother-country of the yearly increasing number of prisoners, captain Philip was sent out as governor, 1787, with 565 male and 192 female convicts, to take possession. The fleet arrived at its destination, Botany Bay, in January, 1788; but the governor soon finding an inlet (to which Cook had given the name of Port Jackson, but which he had never explored) to the north of Botany Bay, a far more advantageous position, and one of the finest harbours in the world, he immediately moved the colony thither, and on January 26, the British ensign was hoisted on the shores of Sidney Cove, then abounding in kangaroos, but now the infant capital of an embryo empire. The silence and solitude of the forest were soon broken in upon by the resounding stroke of the woodman's axe; the ground was cleared, tents were pitched, and the live-stock landed, stores deposited, and the little colony established; the number of individuals amounting to 1030, which, within half a century, has been augmented to 100,000 souls. Great difficulties were experienced for several years, which nothing but the most extraordinary perseverance, aided by that moral and physical courage which Britons possess to so eminent a degree, could have surmounted. New South Wales, in its general features, consists of alternate mountains and plains. There is a range of lofty and steep hills running nearly parallel with the coast, at a distance of 50 miles, and called the Blue Mountains, the intervening space being an undulating plain, intersected by several rivers, which have their rise in the elevations just mentioned. Beyond is a considerable extent of table-land. The whole territory is divided into 19 counties, and the following have been the governors: 1788, captain Arthur Philip; 1792,

captain Francis Grose; 1794, captain Paterson; 1795, captain Hunter; 1800, captain P. G. King; 1806, captain William Bligh; 1808, colonel Johnson, colonel Foveaux, colonel William Patterson; 1810, general Lachlan Macquarie; 1801, sir T. Brisbane; 1825, colonel Stewart; 1825, general Ralph Darling; 1831, colonel Lindesay; 1831, general Richard Bourke; 1837, sir G. Gipps. New Holland is the largest island in the world, containing two millions of square miles. Only the coast of this immense territory is known, and all the colonies planted thereon are British. On the east side, which has the general name of New South Wales, are now the settlements of Botany Bay, Sidney or Port Jackson, and Ports Hunter, Macquarie, and Moreton; and on the south-west and southern coast are Swan River and South Australia, the last-planted colonies. The wool of all the settlements is remarkably fine, and is therefore likely to become the staple commodity of commerce, while excellent timber is produced at Swan River, and has found a ready market at the Cape of Good Hope, and other places. The success of these colonies mainly depends on the degree of encouragement afforded by the mother country to the industry of the settlers; and their interests, in common with the interests of her other distant settlements, should ever be paramount in England over those of merely allied states. Allied nations are our friends and neighbours, but colo-

nies, it should be remembered, are our children. History abounds with proofs, that a great maritime dominion, such as England now is, exists but as connected with its colonies. The only traffic which can be permanently relied on for its formation of a nursery for seamen, is that which such a country carries on with its dependencies, and of which foreign jealousy cannot deprive it. This fact strikes at once at the root of the reciprocity system (or mutual-trading of allied nations): reciprocity ceases when disputes begin, and there is an end of traffic. It is to our own colonies, therefore, and not to the trade with independent states, that we must look for the means both of upholding our maritime superiority, and of finding subsistence and employment for our rapidly increasing population. The government of New South Wales is vested in a governor, assisted and, as it were, controlled, by an executive council, of which he is a party, together with the colonial secretary, bishop, and lieutenant-governor. There is also a legislative council, which includes the four same officers, the remainder being the chief-justice, attorney-general, chief officer of customs, auditor-general, and seven private gentlemen of the colony, who are appointed by the crown for life. Timber, New Zealand flax, and whale-oil, are articles of export from New South Wales, beyond the staple, wool; and there are several banks in the colony.

INVENTIONS, DISCOVERIES, AND USAGES.

UMBRELLAS, 1760, were first used by the philanthropic Jonas Hanway in the streets of London. Mr. Hanway was one of the first committee of the Magdalen charity, and of the Marine Society for fitting out indigent, and even depraved, boys for the naval service.

THE FIRST ENGLISH CANAL CUT, 1760, under the direction of the duke of Bridgewater, who has been styled

the parent of canal navigation. Brindley was the engineer; and the work extended from Worsley to Manchester.

PORCELAIN, 1763, in close imitation of the original *china*, was invented by Mr. Wedgwood, a potter of Newcastle-under-Lyne, in Staffordshire, where he built a village named Etruria, and amassed a large fortune. By his talents, England, from being

the importer, became the exporter of the finer kinds of earthenware, and has so continued.

THE LONGITUDE CORRECTED, 1764, by Harrison's time-keeper. Upon proof being given that, in two voyages Mr. Harrison's chronometer had corrected the longitude within the limits required by an act of queen Anne, the parliament gave him the promised reward of 20,000*l*. To find the longitude at sea, is a problem to which the attention of navigators and mathematicians has been directed ever since navigation began to be improved; and since Mr. Harrison's time, instruments have been constructed which determine the point still more closely, and perhaps with as great a degree of accuracy as is attainable. (*See Harrison.*)

THE STEAM-ENGINE, 1764, improved by Watt. From that period to the present day, the principles of machinery and power of steam have wholly engrossed the attention of physical scholars; insomuch that there is now scarcely a branch of art or manufacture, which is not directed by the steam-engine in place of human labour. As a comparatively perfect knowledge has been gained of the amount of mechanical virtue (if it may be so termed) which exists in coal, much less of that valuable material is consumed in the production of steam than formerly; and such is the nicety with which machinery is adapted to its purpose, that the feeble hand of man has been armed with a power to which no limits can be assigned. The steam-engine has infinitely added to the means of human comfort and enjoyment, and rendered cheap and accessible to all, the materials of wealth and prosperity. It has become a thing alike stupendous for its force and its flexibility: the trunk of an elephant, that can pick up a pin, and rend an oak, is nothing in comparison of it: it can engrave a seal, and crush masses of obdurate metals like wax before it; it can draw out, without breaking, a thread as fine as gossamer, and lift up

a ship of war like a bauble into the air: it can embroider muslin, and forge anchors: it can cut steel into ribands, and impel loaded vessels against the fury of the winds and waves. At least 12,000 machines are now in use in Great Britain, by which the labour of 250,000 horses is saved. Supposing each horse to consume annually the produce of two acres, 500,000 acres are thus set free for other purposes. Dr. Lardner shows that the steam from one pound of coal has a power of raising 667 tons weight of any material to the height of one foot; and that therefore an ounce of coal would raise forty-two tons one foot high, or eighteen pounds a mile in height. Since a force of eighteen pounds is capable of drawing two tons upon a railway, it follows that an ounce of coal can draw two tons a mile, or one ton two miles upon a level railway. The circumference of the earth measures 25,000 miles. If it were begirt by an iron railway, a load of one ton would be drawn round it in six weeks, by the mechanical power that resides in the third part of a ton of coals! But listen to what the same philosopher further says. 'The state of physical science at the present moment justifies the expectation that we are on the eve of mechanical discoveries more important than any which have yet appeared. Philosophy already directs her finger at sources of inexhaustible power, in the phenomena of electricity and magnetism. The steam-engine itself, with the gigantic powers conferred upon it by the immortal Watt, will dwindle into insignificance, in comparison of the hidden powers of nature still to be revealed; and the day will probably come, when that machine, which is now extending the blessings of civilization to the most remote skirts of the globe, will cease to exist, except in the page of history.'

BLACKFRIARS BRIDGE COMPLETED, 1770. It was named at its foundation Pitt's Bridge, in honour of the earl of Chatham, and commenced in 1760. The cost was 160,000*l*. which was

defrayed by a toll that lasted several years. The bridge has nine elliptical arches, and the span of the centre one is 100 feet.

THE AUTOMATON CHESS-PLAYER.—Wolfgang de Kempelen, an Hungarian gentleman, and Aulic counsellor of the empress, being at Vienna in 1769, was invited by Maria Theresa to fulfil a promise he had made her majesty, of constructing a machine far more complete and surprising than the magnetic games then exhibiting before the court by Pelletier, a Frenchman. He kept his word; and in 1770 presented himself once more at Vienna, accompanied by an automaton chess-player. The machine, on being set in motion, excited the admiration of the whole court; and the fame of the same spreading throughout Europe, de Kempelen was soon regarded as a wizard of the first quality. On a set of castors was placed a chest 3½ feet long, 2 feet wide, and 2½ feet high, behind which was a figure the size of life, dressed as a Turk, seated upon a wooden chair. The figure leaned its right arm on the chest, and held a pipe in its left hand: and when required to play, de Kempelen took the pipe away, and the automaton commenced the game of chess with his left hand. With a view to prove that no human creature was concealed within, the door of the chest was made to open, and the garments of the figure were allowed to be thrown over its head; when all beneath and within appeared to consist of wheel machinery, among which a candle was placed, if required, to expose each corner more fully. From 1770 till 1830, a period of sixty years, this apparatus, in the hands of the inventor and his agents, foiled the ingenious of all countries in their attempts to dive into the mysteries of its construction. Kings and princes, and often first-rate chess-players were beaten by it; while, in de Kempelen's first visit to England, 1784, no less than five shillings per head were paid by such as desired a sight of it. Even Napoleon once

consented to play against it; and when, by purposely making false moves, he took care not to allow his own defeat, the automaton, as if enraged, after replacing the first offending piece, and snatching off the second, boldly, when the third attempt was made to foil it, swept all the chess-men from the board. Quarrels, at length, among the proprietors of the automaton, have effected in our day, what neither the bribes of potentates, nor the threats of rivals could produce; and the whole secret has been disclosed by one Mouret, a Frenchman, before his death in 1838, for a sum of money. The man who really played was concealed in the chest. He sat on a low stool, which moved on castors, and had every facility afforded him of shifting his position like an eel. While one part of the machine was shown to the public, he took refuge in another,—now lying down, now kneeling; placing his body in all sorts of positions studied beforehand, and assumed in rotation. When the examination was over, he took a more comfortable standing, and peeped through certain holes in the Turk's drapery, to ascertain the moves which he would be required to make with the automaton's hand. The apparatus of wheels and other machinery was a mere feint to deceive the spectator. The winding up of the figure, which was every now and then practised, was in the same way a delusion, to divert the inquirer from the main question—that of searching for the concealed actor, or to prevent some coughing or sneezing fit being overheard. Mouret was the last admirable player belonging to the machine; and more than once he had threatened to divulge the deceit, when his confederate, Maelzel, the successor of De Kempelen, had omitted to pay him his wages.

THE HUMANE SOCIETY was founded 1774 by Dr. Hawes, a physician, who satirized with great ability the indiscreet 'Primitive Physic' of John Wesley. The society is for the re-

covery of apparently drowned persons ; and the benevolent doctor paid the rewards out of his own pocket, until Dr. Cogan and others aided him in extending the institution to the public.

INVENTION OF THE PIANOFORTE.

—This delightful instrument owes its construction to Mr. William Mason the poet, who promulgated his invention in 1775. Many attempts had for years been made in Germany to improve the harpsichord, by giving its wires the power of graduating the sound, so as to produce expression ; but little more was effected than what pedals could accomplish, and the best harpsichords were at length those of Hasse at Dresden, noted for their mellowness, those of Rucker, for their brilliancy and fulness, and those of Kirkman of London, which were thought to surpass all others. The clavichord invented by Euler the mathematician was then thought susceptible of vast improvement ; but this instrument, though a stringed one, was a feeble waspish sort of thing at best, and Mr. Mason's invention soon caused it to be laid aside, together with the spinnet.

The pianoforte corresponds to its name with precision : it can give to the sound of its strings every gradation of power, and every degree of expression that an instrument purely pulsatile is capable of. It is soft (*piano*), it is loud (*forte*), as the player chooses to apply his fingers to the keys ; and the public approval of it is sufficiently evinced in England, by the extraordinary annual demand for it. — (*See Mason, William.*)

The spinnet (from *spinæ, thorns*, because of its small quill ends, which strike the strings) was a weak attempt to do what the piano has so boldly effected. It was similar to the latter instrument in general construction ; but the jacks struck the strings by means of the end of a crow-quill which armed them, as in the harpsichord. The *cabinet* pianoforte, wherein the strings run perpendicularly, instead

of in the original horizontal direction, was the simultaneous invention of Broadwood and other manufacturers, about the year 1810. The cabinet sort, however, is acknowledged to be inferior for sound to the horizontal pianoforte ; of which lastnamed kind 'the grand,' as it is termed, is the very best. It neither impedes the voice of the singer, nor cramps the sound of the strings, as the upright classes of instruments necessarily do.

THE DIVING-BELL IMPROVED, 1780.

—Dr. Halley had constructed a machine, which was an improvement on former ones, for a descent below the surface of the sea ; but Mr. Spalding, a Scotsman, brought one to great perfection in 1780. Low-water-mark is no longer a limit to the operations of the engineer ; the spirit-level of the plumb-line, and the nicely-fitted joints of the stonemason, are now quite as much attended to at a reasonable depth in the water, as in the mightiest works on the land ; and foundations are laid with precision on the far-sunk submarine precipice.

'On touching the surface,' says Mr. Babbage, in his account of his recent descent, 'and thus cutting off the communication with the external air, a peculiar sensation is perceived in the ears ; it is not, however, painful. The attention is soon directed to another object. The air, rushing in through the valves at the top of the bell, overflows, and escapes with a considerable bubbling noise under the sides. The motion of the bell proceeds slowly and almost imperceptibly. A pain now begins to be felt in the ears, arising from the increased external pressure ; this may sometimes be removed by the act of yawning, or by closing the nostrils and mouth, and attempting to force air through the ears. If the water is not much disturbed, the light in the bell is very considerable ; and, even at the depth of twenty feet, was more than is usual in many sitting-rooms. Within the distance of eight or ten feet, the stones at the bottom begin to be visible. The pain in the ears

continues at intervals, until the descent of the bell terminates by resting on the ground. Signals are communicated by the workmen in the bell to those above, by striking against the sides of the bell with a hammer; and the sound is heard very distinctly by those above.'

SUNDAY SCHOOLS INSTITUTED, 1781, by Mr. Robert Raikes, a printer, and Mr. Stock, a divine. Mr. Raikes having realized a good fortune, employed it at Gloucester, his native city, in relieving such objects as stood in need of his benevolent assistance; and observing that the Sabbath-day, from the rest given from their labours to the poor, was, in many of the villages, become the worst conducted one of the week, and consequently a chief cause of vulgar profligacy, he planned Sunday-schools for the purpose of drawing away the children from the evil example of their parents and each other, and of inuring them to early and regular habits of attendance on God's worship. This good man died 1811.—(See *Education, National*.)

BALLOONS INVENTED, 1782, BY MONTGOLFIER.—(See *Montgolfier*.) The following account of an English aerial voyage in 1829 is from a correspondent of the 'Mirror': 'I ascended with Mr. Green from Rotherhithe, amidst the acclamations of the multitude, whose forms and voices soon passed away. The serenity of the evening threw a degree of solemnity over the scene, which had the effect of enchantment. We never lost sight of the earth, for our voyage was perfectly cloudless. The fields and buildings were all in miniature proportion, though most exquisitely depicted; and as Greenwich Hospital, the Tower of London, and St. Paul's receded from our view, the country succeeded, resembling one continued garden. The fields of grain beautifully defined, and the clearness of the atmosphere, threw a varnish over the whole face of nature. We had the Thames in view the whole time, which appeared like a rivulet of

silver; but below Kingston bridge, the setting sun gilded its surface with magnificent effect. The boats appeared like little pieces of cork. The Penitentiary at Milbank had the resemblance of a twelfth-cake cut into quarters; and old and new London bridges were like two feeble efforts of the works of man. At our greatest altitude an awful stillness prevailed; and I can neither describe its grandeur, nor my own excitement. We let loose a pigeon, and having a favourable country below, prepared to descend. Mr. Green having hailed some men, I saw them run, and we fell into a field of wheat near Kingston, with scarcely any rebound; in fact a child might have alighted with safety.' The greatest altitude of the aeronauts was a mile and a quarter.

But the most interesting aeronautic trips of late days were those of Mr. Green, November 7th, 1836, July 24th, 1837, and August 17th, 1840. In the first, he started in an immense balloon from Vauxhall-gardens, accompanied by Messrs. Mason and Holland; and after traversing a space of 500 miles in eighteen hours, descended at Weilburg, in Nassau. It was nearly five in the afternoon, and dark, when the intrepid trio passed over Dover, in the direction of France. 'It would be impossible,' writes Mr. Mason, 'not to have been struck with the grandeur of the prospect at this particular moment of our voyage. Behind us, the whole line of English coast appeared sparkling with scattered lights, which every moment augmented; on either side below us, the interminable ocean spread its waves; and before us arose a dense barrier of clouds, fantastically surmounted with a gigantic representation of parapets and turrets, as if designed to stay our further progress. In a few minutes afterwards we had entered within its dusky limits, and for a while became involved in the double obscurity of the surrounding vapours, and of the approach of night.' At length the lights of Calais glittered beneath the voyagers, who found that an hour

and two minutes had been occupied in the passage of the Channel. 'The night having now completely closed in,' continues Mr. Mason, 'the scene beneath was one which exceeds description. The earth's surface, for many a league around, exhibited a starry spectacle, that almost rivalled in brilliancy the lustre of the firmament above. During the earlier portion of the night, ere the inhabitants had retired to rest, large patches of light would frequently appear just above the horizon, in the direction in which we were advancing, bearing no faint resemblance to the effect of some vast conflagration. By degrees, as we drew nigh, this confused mass of illumination increased in intensity and extent, until at length, the balloon having attained a position whence we could more distinctly direct our view, it would resolve itself into its parts, and, shooting out into streets, or spreading into squares, present us with the perfect model of a town. In this manner did we traverse a large portion of the European continent, embracing within our horizon an immense succession of towns and villages, whose artificial illumination alone enabled us to distinguish them.' The city of Liège was the last marked out by its more fervid and expanded light, proceeding from the very numerous iron-factories therein; and, soon after watching the forms of its streets, the aeronauts were embosomed in thick darkness, and saw no more of the earth.

It was now past midnight, and the machine proceeded in silence, without disturbance of any kind, until half-past three o'clock in the morning of the 8th; when, on a sudden, the balloon, owing to a discharge of ballast, rose with considerable rapidity, and seriously alarmed, as may be imagined, the two inexperienced voyagers, by its consequent agitation. 'While all around was impenetrable darkness,' continues Mr. Mason, 'an explosion issued from the machine above, followed by a violent rustling of the silk, and by other signs which

might be supposed to accompany its bursting. The car became at the same instant subjected to a powerful concussion, and appeared (instead of rising, as was the fact) to be sinking into the abyss below. A second and a third explosion followed; attended with the same effects; after which the balloon recovered its usual form and stillness.' This is explained by the aeronaut to have been occasioned by the increasing volume of the balloon, when subject to less pressure by its higher position in the atmosphere; the network which surrounded it having frozen about it when in its shrunken capacity, and formed an obstacle to its distension,—hence the explosions. The party at length landed, to the great astonishment of the Germans, at Weilburg, it being then about eight in the morning. A fortnight's provisions accompanied the adventurers, and a lamp was kept burning all the night.

The excursion next to be mentioned (July 24th, 1837), fatal as it was to one of the party, was very nearly so to the other two. A Mr. Cocking having constructed a parachute, in which he purposed ascending by attaching it to the car of Mr. Green's balloon, the conjoint machine ventured into the clouds from Vauxhall-gardens, just before eight in the evening. Mr. Green and Mr. Spencer were in the car, and Mr. Cocking was suspended far beneath in the parachute. The balloon had reached about a mile in height, when Mr. Cocking liberated the parachute, and fell a mangled corpse in the apparatus, near Lee in Kent. The presence of mind of Mr. Green, who was only aware of Mr. Cocking's departure by the awful change in the balloon's progress, secured (under Providence, whose power the whole party were so obviously and inconsiderately tempting) the life of himself and of his friend; and his own words are alone adequate to a description of their escape. 'We felt a slight jerk on the liberating iron, but quickly discovered, from not having changed

our elevation, that Mr. Cocking had failed in his attempt to free himself. Another and more powerful jerk ensued, and in an instant the balloon shot up with the velocity of a sky-rocket.

'The effect upon us at this moment is almost beyond description. The immense machine, which suspended us between heaven and earth, while forced upwards with terrific violence, amidst the howlings of a fearful hurricane, rolled about as if revelling in a freedom for which it had long struggled; and assuming at last the motion of a snake, seemed working its way towards a given object. During this frightful operation, the gas was rushing out in torrents from the valves; and had it not been for the application to our mouths of two pipes leading into a silk bag, containing 100 gallons of atmospheric air, with which we had furnished ourselves previous to starting, we must both within a minute have been suffocated. The gas, notwithstanding this precaution, soon deprived us of sight; and for five minutes we were, as far as our visionary powers were concerned, in a state of total darkness.'

When, at length, the great escape of gas had given a rapidly descending power to the machine, Mr. Spencer, having somewhat recovered his sight, found the mercury in the barometer to stand at 13.20, showing an elevation even then of 23,384 feet, or about four miles and a quarter. It was calculated that no less than 180,000 gallons of gas had been set free in the perilous struggle, inasmuch as that the greatest altitude of the aeronauts must have far exceeded four miles. At about nine o'clock they safely came down at Offham, near Maidstone, where it happened singularly that the adventurers were supplied with beds for the night by the rev. Mr. Mooney, son of major Mooney, the aeronaut, who ascended from Norwich, July 1785, and fell into the sea twenty miles off Lowestoft.

The last trip to be mentioned (August 17, 1840), was from Cre-

morne-house, Chelsea, and is memorable for the difficulties attending the descent. Mr. Macdonnell, a young Irish gentleman who accompanied the aeronaut, is the writer of the account. 'About two miles before us lay a large extent of champagne country, called the Salt-marshes (in Essex), which appeared to afford the requisite facilities for safe descent. Mr. Green made his preparations accordingly by letting out the gas from the upper valve, and we descended swiftly to the earth. In a few seconds we passed over the Thames, and found ourselves about 200 feet above the ground at the opposite bank. Here Mr. Green cautioned me particularly to take fast hold of a rope which he had fastened across the wicker car, and luckily I obeyed his instructions to the letter; for presently we felt a slight check from one grappling-iron let down from the hoop above to the distance of 140 feet towards the earth. A moment after, there came a terrific shock; we were going at the rate of at least 60 miles an hour, and our anchor had caught in the side of a dyke, and, owing to the extreme speed with which we were travelling, tore its way through the hoop to which it was fastened, and coming in contact with the car as it snapped, completely upset it, so that I and Mr. Green were turned topsyturvy, with our heads towards the ground. The rope which was passed across the car alone prevented our falling out; though so complete was the upset, that most of the contents of the car, such as the ballast, &c., as well as my own hat, dropped to the earth. In another moment the car righted, and the balloon, thus freed from every check, descended, dashing us with terrific force against the ground. Immediately after, it ascended, and again brought us with a fearful collision to the earth. The wind was blowing with violence, and we were thus carried along for upwards of half a mile, till at last we reached a sort of creek or small river, through

which we were hurried, half buried in its waters, to the opposite bank ; over which we bounded like a tennis-ball, and after a few moments, found ourselves dragged through some acres of marsh and osiers, towards a high mound, which I confess that I contemplated with fearful anticipations. But onwards, still onwards, the terrible demon to which we had linked ourselves held its way. Ere long we were dashed against the mound, and then carried over it, right upon a strong paling that lay on the other side ; but nothing could withstand our impetuosity, and we burst through the oaken timbers as though they were cobwebs—not however, I regret to state, without Mr. Green sustaining some very severe internal injuries. We had now a level plain before us, and the speed of the balloon was beginning to be arrested by the great escape of gas ; for we constantly, through all the vicissitudes of our fortune, kept a tight hand on the rope which opened the upper valve. Here rather a comical sight presented itself, if any thing could be rendered comical to persons situated so awfully as we were. There were large herds of cattle grazing in the plain, who, when they perceived the balloon approaching, at first formed themselves into a body, as though to resist an invading enemy, but, on our nearer approach, fled panic-struck before us. Never was seen such an extraordinary chase—we dragged along the ground, fastened to a monster that seemed to disdain all human guidance,—and chasing a herd of cattle that fled in terror, with their tails in the air, and their heads to the ground. Ere long I found means to throw myself out of the car, without sustaining any material injury, and seized hold of one of the ropes, which I twined round my left hand, as I was apprehensive that the balloon, when lightened of my weight, might bear my fellow-adventurer on a second reluctant visit to Nassau. The rope cut through my flesh nearly to the bone ;

but I managed to hold on till a countryman came to my aid. Suffice it to say that we found ourselves near Raynham in Essex, having accomplished that distance from Cremorne-house Chelsea, in less than 20 minutes.'

LONDON STREETS APPOINTED TO BE KEPT IN BETTER ORDER, 1766.—

This was effected by a general repaving, giving a reasonable width to the footpaths, and using large flat stones for them, to distinguish them more accurately from the coach-roads. Signs were also ordered to be taken down (for every shop had its sign projecting over the footpath, swinging upon an iron bar fastened to the house), the dripping rain from these having long been an annoyance to passengers. Sewers and drains were increased in number, and scavengers were appointed to sweep away such filth as could not escape by those channels. A very important branch of trade is now established in this way, and the dust of our streets has been of late years, by a singular species of alchymy, turned into gold. It will scarcely be credited that the five parishes alone of Mary-la-bonne, St. George Hanover-square, St. Martin in the fields, St. James's, and St. Paul Covent-garden, receive at the present time from contracting scavengers, no less a sum total than 8780*l.* for a year's permission to collect and carry away their accumulated dirt. The mud of London, from the intermixture of granite-dust (the pavement consisting of Aberdeen granite), is noted for its adhesive quality ; and this occasions it to be in great request by brickmakers. Hence the complaint of country visitors to the metropolis, who find, on their return home, that no hitherto-discovered brush, nothing short of a 'new suit,' will compensate the damage done to the true Saxon cloth by the birdlime splashes of London streets.

PROMULGATION OF ANIMAL MAGNETISM.—In 1776 Anton Mesmer, on proceeding M. D. at Vienna, published an inaugural thesis on the

influence of the planets on the human body, and began medical practice by asserting that he could cure all diseases, especially those of the nervous class, by what he was pleased to term 'Animal Magnetism.' In the healing of his patients he employed steel plates of a peculiar form, which he impregnated with the virtues of the magnet; but father Hehl, a Jesuit, openly declaring that he was the inventor of the plates, and that Mesmer was only taking advantage of the confidence he had placed in him, in order to obtain money, the latter was obliged to quit Vienna. Mesmer next appeared at Paris, where what had passed in Austria not being known, he procured public apartments, whither flocked to him for advice peers and peasants in vast numbers. M. d'Eston, a Paris physician, who adopted the system soon after, is said to have soon received in fees more than 100,000*l.* sterling for his cures! This rivalry of his disciple offended Mesmer; and when he found his modest request of a chateau and park from the French government, (which had countenanced his proceedings) refused, excepting he would perform his cures in the presence of certain witnesses, he retired to Spa. Still had he followers, who again induced him to settle in Paris, to which he was tempted by their joint subscription-purse of 18,000*l.*; but soon after his return thither, and the receipt of the money, he quarrelled with his supporters, and escaping to his native place, Mersburg in Swabia, gave himself no further trouble about the success or failure of his art. Mesmer's cures, whenever they could be so called, were effected by working on the imagination of his patients. Placed round a wooden circular vessel filled with iron filings and pounded glass, they were made to lay hold of certain iron rods projecting every where from the vessel. A pianoforte played certain soothing airs during the process; and if the rods effected no-

thing, Mesmer applied his hands to the hypochondria and abdominal regions of the circle of gulls, who, thus tickled and pulled about (sometimes for hours together) by the manipulator, went some into hysterics, others into ecstatic reveries, and occasionally one into a fit, from which he, but especially *she*, never revived. The scientific Franklin and others, deputed by the French authorities to inquire into the process, pronounced it not only a mummery, but declared 'that there were parts of the operation which might be readily turned to vicious purposes; and that immoral practices had already grown out of them.' Notwithstanding this declaration, there still continued and continue stanch believers in 'mesmerism' in France and Germany: in England we trust the bubble has burst, after a recent exposure of its quackery in one of the London hospitals, where the operator, a physician, was awe-struck on finding that the piece of metal of his own preparation, supposed to have been held in the patient's (victim's?) hand, had been exchanged, though the fit had been produced, for a piece of lead, by an opponent of the system.

THE BAMPTON LECTURES FOUNDED, 1730. John Bampton, canon of Salisbury, left estates to remunerate a lecturer, to be yearly chosen by the heads of colleges at Oxford on the first Tuesday in Easter term, who should preach eight divinity lectures the year following at St. Mary's, Oxford, the subjects being one of six: viz., 1st, to confirm and establish the Christian faith, and to confute all heretics and schismatics; 2d, upon the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures; 3d, upon the authority of the writings of the primitive Fathers, as to the faith and practice of the primitive Church; 4th, upon the divinity of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ; 5th, upon the divinity of the Holy Ghost; 6th, upon the articles of the Christian faith, as comprehended in the Apostles' and Nicene Creeds. As men of known talents

are usually selected to preach these lectures, the appointment has been considered a stepping-stone to high promotion.

THE FUCHSIA PLANT INTRODUCED.—

This very elegant shrub was first cultivated in England 1785, by Mr. Lee, a nurseryman, who amassed a considerable property by his indefatigable labours to improve the conservatory. Some one had told him that he had seen in a window at Wapping a plant with tassel-like flowers of rich crimson, having a purple centre, and off he posted to the spot, and was soon haggling with the old woman who owned it, for its purchase. Though a great deal was said about the thing having been 'brought over by her dear husband from West Ingy,' the sight of the mingled contents of Lee's pocket, which he emptied upon the table, and which amounted in gold, silver, and copper, to eight guineas, overcame the old dame's resolution; and the florist joyfully conveyed his prize homewards in a hackney-coach, destroying, as he went, every vestige of blossom and blossom-bud. Once housed in his nursery, he divided it into cuttings, forced these in bark beds, and then redivided and subdivided them. 'By the next flowering season,' says Mr. Shepherd, the enlightened botanist of Liverpool, 'Lee was the possessor of 300 fuchsias. The two which opened first were removed into his show-house. A lady came,—why Mr. Lee, dear Mr. Lee, where did you get this charming flower? A guinea was thought no great price for the plant, and off one went, and soon in like manner the 300.' So is what is technically called in the present day *tact* in the business of life rewarded; and it is difficult to assign a limit to the gain, when taste, decision, skill, and perseverance unite to further the speculator's object.

INTRODUCTION OF THE CALCEOLARIA, OR SLIPPERWORT.—Some species of this showy plant were brought into

England from Mexico 1786; but in 1832 various hybrids were raised by skilful cultivators, which far surpassed in beauty the original species. Since that period, incessant attempts have been made for the improvement of this tribe of plants, and made with such perfect success, that any one unacquainted with the power over the vegetable kingdom which the knowledge of fertilization vests in the gardener, would scarcely believe that the splendid calceolarias now seen have been produced by a long course of improvement from species utterly insignificant. Not only has the form and size of the flower been improved, but from a very few original colours, principally yellow and purple, have been produced nearly every colour in the rainbow, except blue and scarlet; and still more extraordinary, flowers generally of a light ground, beautifully and regularly spotted over with a colour of an entirely different character, as if some clever artist had first laid on a delicate cream as a ground colour, and then, with patient skill, dotted in a rich and lively purple. There were originally two distinct sections of the genus *calceolaria*, the plants belonging to the one being of a shrubby habit, while those of the other were perfectly herbaceous. And it is not a little remarkable, that while in points of habit, foliage, and facility of culture, the shrubby species had the decided advantage, they were far surpassed in the size and beauty of the flower by their herbaceous relatives. By fertilization a race has been obtained partaking of the characters of either section, neither perfectly shrubby, nor entirely herbaceous; and, although on many of these are produced flowers of very great beauty, it is worthy of remark, that even in proportion as the variety inclines in habit to the shrubby section, its flowers diminish in size and beauty, and that the most beautiful blooms are produced from hybrids purely herbaceous.

PARALLEL REIGNS.

TURKEY UNDER MUSTAFA III., &c.—Mustafa III., son of the deposed Ahmed III., succeeded Osman II. 1757, and for several years laboured to increase the prosperity of his country by cultivating the arts of peace; but in 1768 we find him coming forward in support of the Polish Dissidents, who had united by the confederation of Bar against Russia. He insisted on the evacuation of the Polish territory by the troops of Catherine; and his remonstrances being disregarded, gave orders for an expedition under Kerim Geray, khan of the Tartars, to destroy New Servia, which has no parallel of atrocity in modern history. In January, 1769, the khan assembled 80,000 Tartars on the Dniester; and supported by a large body of Spahis (chiefly Arnauts), began his march, every man taking his month's provision of millet-meal on his led horse. On reaching the river Ingul, one-third of the Tartars were detached upon the work of destruction, while the main army followed slowly to check any attack upon their flank. That same night, the frost set in with such appalling intensity, that several hundred of the Spahis, whose clothing was not calculated, like that of the Tartars, for so desperate a service, perished on the ground. The destroyers nevertheless advanced; and in a few hours the flames of the burning villages of the unhappy Servians illuminated the whole horizon. Those who fled before the Tartars, fell down and died of cold and want; while the rest were swept away in one indiscriminate herd of men, women, and children, to end their lives in slavery. No less than 150 towns and villages were burned, and about 60,000 inhabitants were carried off or perished; while more than 3000 of the invaders found their graves amidst the desolation they had created. Great preparations were made at Constantinople for following up the panic caused by this dreadful expedition; and the standard of Mahomet was displayed

with a grand procession through the city, during which ceremony it is death for any Christian to appear in the streets. The wife and daughter of the French resident, M. Brognard, were led by curiosity to look at the procession from a window; when the populace perceiving them, forced the doors in a burst of rage, dragged them into the street, and would certainly have strangled them, but for the timely arrival of some janizaries. Next day the sultan sent them an apology, and a present of rich jewels, accompanied by an embroidered sack, containing the heads of the three principal rioters. Under marshal Romanzov and prince Gallitzin, the Russians prevented the passage of the Dniester being forced by the Turks; while a Russian fleet, under the Englishmen Elphinstone and Gregg, who had been attracted into her navy by the politic empress, made a descent on the Morea, and after rousing the Greeks to insurrection against their masters, almost destroyed the Turkish fleet off Scio. The town of Bender, which had long been the chief frontier magazine of the sultan, was taken by Romanzov, 1770, and entirely consumed by fire, in consequence of the explosion of what the inventor (a Frenchman) termed a globe of compression; being a complication of mines, containing the enormous quantity of 10,000 pounds of powder, the horrible concussion on the bursting of which shook the whole adjacent country, and reduced the walls of Bender to a heap of rubbish. The afterwards celebrated Suvarov was a young soldier under Romanzov, and already began to display his abilities, by mainly contributing to the capture of Turtukay, a fortress on the Danube, containing a vast treasure in precious effects, which he announced to his commander in his well-known laconic way: 'Honour and glory to God! We are in possession of Turtukay, and I am in it. Suvarov.' The plague now broke out,

and, soon after a battle at Tchesmé, attempts were made to bring about a peace; which the Turks reluctantly assented to, 1774, in consequence of a mutiny of the janizaries. This treaty (of Kainardgi) had no sooner given the Russians Asof and the free navigation of the Euxine, than Mustafa died, and was succeeded by AHMED IV., 1774. The first great event in this reign was the breaking out of a rebellion in Egypt, the granary of Turkey, 1776; which, after a long and bloody war, was suppressed by the intrepid Hussein Bey, the grand admiral, who, at the age of seventy, fought with all the ardour of youth, and all the skill of the most consummate general. Meanwhile Catherine had in 1782, on the death of the khan of Tartary, sent Suvarov to support one of the competitors for the throne, whom she thought most likely to submit to her afterwards; and he had scarcely been elected, when she obtained his abdication, and announced herself sovereign of the Crimea, a proceeding which, however unwarrantable, was not displeasing to her new subjects, who preferred her government to the double yoke of the Turks and their own rulers. A great national feast was given by Suvarov to the Nogay Tartars to celebrate the event; whereat many of them fell down dead with drinking,—a thing considered only the greater honour to the feast. The demands of the empress upon Turkey being highly arrogant, war was declared against Russia, 1787, and a vain attempt made to recover the Crimea. In 1788 some advantage was gained by the visir Yusef over the Austrians, under their emperor Joseph, who, when the Russians were drawn away by an attack of the Swedes, declared they would aid their ally the empress, and without ceremony marched upon Belgrade. At the same time, no week passed without a combat at the mouth of the Dniester between the Turkish fleet under Hussein and that of the Russians under the celebrated Paul Jones;

and in one of those desultory actions, Suvarov was seriously wounded. In the winter of the same year, Potemkin laid siege to Otchakov; and nothing could exceed that prince's absurdities. For a week together he would remain inactive in his tent, and then rush in a silk dressing-gown and slippers into the trenches, and expose himself equally to the rigour of the weather, and the fire of the place. Suvarov, however, aided him; and wounded as the latter was, he conducted a general assault on the 6th of December, and the town was carried. For three days there ensued a scene of horror and carnage almost without example, no quarter being asked or given. In the midst of these troubles, Ahmed died, aged 47, 1789.

THE POPEDOM.—CLEMENT XIV., Gian Vincenzo Ganganelli, son of a physician of Santo Arcangelo, near Rimini, succeeded Clement XIII., 1769. He had received his early education at Rimini, and at the age of eighteen entered the order of Minor Conventual Franciscans at Urbino. At the age of thirty-five he was appointed theological professor in the college of St. Bonaventura at Rome; and in that station he acquired general respect, by his mode of inculcating knowledge, and his sound doctrine. His merit attracted the notice of Benedict XIV., who made him counsellor of the holy office; and in 1779 he was raised to the cardinalate by Clement XIII. On the death of the latter, in the midst of the embarrassment caused by the demand of the catholic sovereigns for the suppression of the Jesuits, Ganganelli was chosen his successor, chiefly through the influence of the house of Bourbon. His election, which took place in May, 1789, after a stormy conclave, which had lasted two months, caused great joy among the Roman people; and he immediately began to conciliate the offended sovereigns, though not in such a way as to sacrifice the dignity of his station. Several of the European

powers had been on the eve of a rupture with the states of the Church at the moment of his predecessor's decease; and he displayed his wish to soothe them, by discontinuing the public reading of the bull '*In Cœnâ Domini*,' which was considered offensive. The great question, however, which at that time agitated the Roman Catholic world, was the definite abolition of the order of Jesuits. Being especially urged to carry that point by the Bourbon courts of France and Spain, Clement declared that it required many years for even a pope to consider, before he could act in so serious a matter; and when still further pressed to comply, he coolly answered the ambassador of the French king, 'that as the father of all the faithful, and especially the protector of the religious societies, he could not destroy a celebrated order, without reasons which would justify him before God, and in the eyes of posterity.' The great public event of his pontificate, however, was this suppression, for which he signed a brief on July 21, 1773; and the suppression was instantly succeeded by a perfect reconciliation with the French court. The manner in which the measure was carried into effect in the papal states, partook of unnecessary rigour and harshness: and as Clement began soon after to languish in health, and his final illness was attended with severe pains in the bowels, which reduced him to a skeleton, the known jesuitical doctrines on the subject of expediency, gave rise to a suspicion that he had been poisoned. Clement himself foresaw his approaching end, and said 'that he knew the reason;' but it must be admitted that something more than vague surmise is necessary to justify such an accusation; and that if so disposed, the Jesuits would most likely have perpetrated it by way of prevention, rather than of revenge. The pope died, aged 70, September 22, 1774. Ganganelli was a person of enlightened mind, perhaps too much so for the taste of the more

violent zealots about the court of Rome. He had a taste for the arts. He continued the collection of antique sculptures begun by Lambertini, and ranged them in a suite of rooms in the Vatican, which was called the Clementine Museum, and was afterwards greatly enlarged by his successor, Pius VI., when it received the name of '*Museo Pio-Clementino*.' He added also to the Vatican library. While he maintained the true dignity of his high station, he was also eminently distinguished for simplicity of manners, and disinterestedness; no pope having been less guilty of the vice of nepotism than he. He was also free from bigotry, and received strangers, whether catholic or protestant, with equal kindness. He was particularly fond of easy unrestrained conversation, and often sought to enjoy it with his more peculiar intimates; but he was at the same time indefatigable in business, and minutely attentive to the good of his people. The modesty and occupations of Clement prevented him from becoming an author; and the letters and other pieces ascribed to him are either wholly, or in a great part, spurious. A fine monument, the work of Canova, has been raised to him in the church of S. Apostoli, which belonged to a convent of his order.

RUSSIA UNDER PETER III., &c.—The duke of Holstein-Gottorp succeeded to the Muscovite throne, by the will of the empress Elizabeth, as Peter III., 1762; but he soon gave offence to his subjects by the introduction of the military system of Frederick of Prussia, to whose peculiarities he was enthusiastically attached. Having been educated in a foreign country, he looked with contempt on the barbaric people he had come to rule: and in this spirit, he compelled the clergy to shave their beards, and intimated that all who hoped for his favour must aid him in enforcing the strictest military discipline. It is alleged, however, that Peter's chief amusement was buffoonery; and

that he would sit for hours, listening to a merry-andrew singing drunken songs. A conspiracy was soon set on foot to dethrone him, at the head of which were his own wife, the empress Catherine (daughter of the prince of Anhalt-Zerbst), and the princess Daschkaw, the latter a highly-talented woman; and the moment agreed upon for the outbreak was when Peter had, under count Munich, whom he recalled from Siberian exile, insisted on a regiment's adoption of the Prussian manœuvres. Four regiments of guards were instantly induced by the three brothers Orlov to declare for the Czarina; and Catherine, at their head (accompanied by the princess Daschkaw, habited as a general officer), announced herself autocratix of all the Russias. This revolution was effected before Peter had reigned a year; and when the czar found all to be lost, he refused to head his Holstein forces in order to be reinstated; declaring he was not worthy of so great a sacrifice as that of shedding their blood. The crown, therefore, was settled by the senate on CATHERINE; while her son was declared *her* heir, and, as such, grand-duke of all the Russias. The empress began her reign with moderation, retained Munich in office, and of course kept the princess Daschkaw about her person. The czar was the only one who lost his life by the change; he had been sent, after signing a compulsory act of abdication, to Ropscha, a palace twenty miles from St. Petersburg, and was there assassinated by count Alexis Orlov. The reign of Catherine is in a particular view one of the most brilliant in the history of nations. Pursuing the plans of the great Peter for the civilization of Russia, the military and naval glory of her country were advanced to a great height; while the internal management of the empire was both humane and vigorous. She increased the number of her people by encouraging foreigners to settle in her dominions, constructed roads and

canals, founded numerous schools, and herself corresponded with the various literati of Europe. But the French were her especial favourites; and from them she is said at length to have imbibed no small portion of their degrading philosophy. As to wars, the affairs of Poland and Turkey occupied the whole of her reign. In 1764 she obliged the Poles to elect Stanislaus, one of her own intimates, for their king; and that measure involved her in a war with Turkey, which ended in the conquest of Crim Tartary by the Russians. That same year 1764, on an attempt being made by a lieutenant, named Mirovitsch, to place prince Ivan (a descendant on the female side from Peter the Great's brother) on the throne, that prince was found dead, having been pierced by many wounds, in the house where he had been immured as a state-prisoner by Elizabeth; and Mirovitsch was seized and executed. In 1772 occurred the partition of Poland, Catherine receiving for her portion Livonia, Polotsk, Witepsk, Minsk, and Mistslau; and in 1787 prince Potemkin, now the chief favourite of the empress, persuaded her to a new war with Turkey. At the head of 150,000 men the prince laid siege to Oczaskov, which he took by assault, after slaughtering 25,000 men; and general Suvarov, in the same contest, rendered the reign of Catherine terribly memorable by the carnage he caused at Ismail, 1790. The war closed by the treaty of Yassy, 1792. In 1794 an insurrection commenced in Poland, which caused Suvarov to march upon Warsaw, and almost exterminate the inhabitants. A new partition of that devoted country then took place, 1795; and its name was struck from the map of Europe. During the French revolution, the Empress sent ships to aid the English, received the emigrant nobles of France with great cordiality, and began to display an unusual respect for religious observances. She was planning the subjugation of

Persia, and her general Subov had just gained possession of Derbent, when a fit of apoplexy carried her suddenly to the grave, 1796, being then in her 68th year. The private character of Catherine was licentious in the extreme; but such was her own activity and ability, that none of her favourites but Orlov and Potemkin were allowed to interfere in state matters, and she died highly respected and admired by her people.

SWEDEN UNDER GUSTAVUS III., &c.—Gustavus III. succeeded his father, Adolphus Frederick, 1771, at a moment when Sweden was divided into the factions of *Caps* (French adherents), and *Hats* (Russian). Both parties were detested by the people, on account of their pride and oppression, and both parties were dangerous to the crown, through their aristocratic privileges; inso-much that Gustavus resolved to subvert them, and give greater strength to the democracy. The king had especial reasons for attempting a change,—the senators going so far in abridging his liberties, as to appoint him a confessor, and to settle even how much wine he might be permitted to have on his table. Colonel Hellichius, a Swedish officer, who was in concert with the young monarch, by a pretended revolt afforded him a pretext for assembling the army. Accordingly, in 1772, surrounding the house of the States, or parliament, with his guards, he compelled the members, as if concerned in the revolt, to surrender their authority; and in a new diet, still accompanied by soldiery, he promulgated a charter, which gave extraordinary privileges to the common people. Many wise regulations followed this change; a new translation of the bible was made, torture was abolished, commerce, the arts, and the sciences were liberally encouraged, agriculture and industry were patronized, and the laws were administered with greater despatch, and more impartiality. To put an

end to the disputes which prevailed with Russia, Gustavus, in 1777, paid a visit to Catherine at Petersburg, and was received with magnificent hospitality; and in 1783 he spent ten months in travelling over Italy and France, to observe the manners, the political regulations, and the industrious exertions of those countries. The peace with Russia was disturbed in 1788 by the emissaries of Catherine, who wished to excite disturbances in Finland; and Gustavus, declaring war, equipped a formidable fleet at Carlsclrona. The Swedish arms, however, were by no means successful until 1790, when a great naval victory was gained over the Russians, and peace was soon after restored. Gustavus was preparing, on the outbreak of the French revolution, to invade France, in conjunction with the Spaniards; but his arrest of certain members of the diet, who had voted against a supply of money for the war just completed, occasioned a conspiracy against his life. Counts Horn and Ribbing were the leaders; and a noble named Ankerstrom undertook to commit the act of assassination. A masked-ball, given in 1792 at Stockholm, was selected for the purpose; and Ankerstrom thereat shot the king through the back, but was apprehended, and afterwards executed. Gustavus, after thirteen days of great suffering, which he bore with christian magnanimity, expired, aged 46. Gustavus III. possessed considerable learning and talent. He published, in the Swedish language, several dramatic pieces, which, as well as his speeches to the diet, and his letters, have been translated into French, and printed at Stockholm, in 5 vols. 8vo. He also kept in manuscript the history of his own time, which was preserved at Upsal, with directions that it should be published fifty years after his decease.

DENMARK AND NORWAY UNDER CHRISTIERN VII.—Christiern VII. succeeded his father, Frederick V., 1766; and the most interesting mat-

ters of his reign were consequent upon his marriage with the English princess, Caroline Matilda, the posthumous daughter of Frederick, prince of Wales, and sister of king George III. This alliance, greatly through the intrigues of the queen dowager, the king's stepmother, proved most unfortunate. Anxious to set aside Christiern in favour of her own son Frederick, she, under the mask of friendship and kindness, sowed the seeds of dissension between the royal pair, before the unhappy princess had the least suspicion of her danger; and while the unthinking queen revealed to the dowager all her secrets, the latter placed spies about the king, to keep him constantly engaged in riot and debauchery, to which he was, under any circumstances, too much inclined. The queen, however, lived on good terms with her husband, until she had excited the ire of the dowager by trenching on her privileges, in assuming to herself the direction of some public affairs. Counts Brandt and Struensee had just then been appointed ministers; and here we must go back a little to relate the singular rise to power of those two subsequently notorious personages. John Frederick Struensee was son of a divine who held with great credit the theological chair at Halle, and was born at Halle, 1737. He applied himself to medical studies, and obtained through his talents the office of public physician at Altona; whither his father had removed, to become pastor of the chief church. The great talents of the son were counterbalanced by infidel principles and a vicious career; and when invited, through the notoriety of his medical abilities, to accompany Christiern VII. of Denmark in a tour through France and England, he found the monarch quite akin to himself in a reckless love of the most revolting dissoluteness. At Paris, a frequent intercourse with Voltaire and d'Alembert confirmed at least Struensee in his infidelity;

while the profligacy of the higher ranks in that capital gave both the king and his companion full licence to do wrong, without any fear of scandal. On coming to England, the university of Oxford conferred on Christiern the honorary degree of D.C.L., and on Struensee that of M.D.; and, instantly on their return to Copenhagen, the king introduced his travelling companion to queen Caroline Matilda. Although it is said her majesty did not receive the new favourite of her husband, whom she had every reason to believe as profligate as the king, with any especial marks of attention, Struensee soon contrived to ingratiate himself with her, by affecting to take the warmest interest in the differences which he knew existed between the pair, whom he succeeded at length in reconciling to each other. Now become as acceptable to the queen as to Christiern, Struensee received from both new marks of consideration and esteem; and in 1770, having inoculated the crown-prince (afterwards Frederick VI.) he was intrusted with the full care of his health. In another capacity, that of lecturer to the king, Struensee found ample opportunities of realizing his ambitious plans. In order to supplant count Bernstoff, or rather to deprive him of his seat in the council of state, he recommended count Rantzau Aschbach. Soon afterwards, he obtained the recal from banishment (for a personal offence against Christiern) of his friend Enewold von Brandt, who was raised to the dignity of *maître des plaisirs*, and director of the plays, instead of the old favourite, count Von Holk. Brandt's polished manners, his easy address, and his lively conversation, were qualities well calculated to promote his favour with the court; where it was of the greatest importance to Struensee that none but his friends should have any influence. It was chiefly through Brandt that he finally succeeded in dismissing count Bernstoff from the service;

many other men of quality were obliged to leave their situations; and the queen dowager, Juliana Maria, soon found herself without power, neglected by her friends, and slighted by her enemies. The triumph of queen Caroline was complete, the king behaved to her with deference, and Struensee was now constituted first minister, with almost unlimited power. Thus matters stood at the end of 1770; when, of the two parties striving for the power which the king had almost resigned, that of the young queen, under the guidance of Struensee, obtained a decisive superiority. In order to be in perfect security, Struensee assigned to Brandt the especial office of amusing the king, and preventing him from having any conference with his ministers. It was about this time that the king, urged by Struensee, dissolved the council of state, and instituted in its place what he called a 'Commission of Conference,' consisting of the presidents of the several branches of public administration. This measure brought all the power into the hands of the prime minister, by whom the members of this new council had been appointed. It changed, at the same time, the whole Danish constitution by depriving the nobility of their hereditary influence in the affairs of the government, created an universal feeling of disapprobation, and brought much popular odium upon Struensee. So limited were the powers of this new chamber, that it could assemble only at certain times, and might be dismissed by the minister; in fact, its members had neither rank, power, nor influence. The imprudence with which this measure was carried into effect could not but prejudice the queen's cause. Among the many enemies which it created, few were so exasperated as count Rantzau, who, with his seat in the council of state, lost all his power and authority. To revenge himself, he joined the queen-dowager at

Friedensburg. This sudden change in the administration had, however, the desired effect. Struensee's authority became paramount, and no one ventured to oppose him. The ministers were removed one after the other. All affairs were carried on under the immediate direction of the premier; and all papers passed through his hands before their ratification by the king. But Struensee had no present means of restoring the exchequer of the kingdom, which had long been declining under the administration of persons utterly devoid of prudence, and unacquainted with the resources of the country. His brother, Carl von Struensee, member of the college of finance, assisted him in some intended reforms; but the taxes which he imposed produced great destitution among the lower classes, a circumstance which, joined to the despotism exercised over them by a foreigner, increased the dissatisfaction of the people. All this time the king was surrounded by libertines; by whom the court was plunged into a profligacy which grievously offended a nation so moral as the Danes. Meanwhile the attachment of the queen to Struensee exceeded, in appearance at least, the bounds of moderation. In July, 1771, she was delivered of a princess; and her fears of the infamous reports which were likely to spread from the court of the queen-dowager at Friedensburg, tended only to place her, after this event, still more in Struensee's power. This power he shamefully abused. He was raised to the dignity of a count, together with his friend Brandt; and there is reason to believe that much of the enormous wealth of which he died possessed, was wrung from the queen's weakness. But though the queen's fears made her silent, it was not so with the press. Its comments on Struensee's proceedings could not be prevented, except by revoking the freedom which he had granted it only two years before, with the hope

of obtaining popularity. This revocation, together with the many slights he offered to his former friends, raised the indignation of many to the highest pitch; and even those who were most attached to him, began to treat him with reserve. At this crisis his mental powers clearly declined in strength; the daring which had founded his administration, and the quickness in planning and boldness in executing which sustained it, gave place to the weak and vacillating fear of his daily-increasing difficulties. An unimportant mutiny of 300 sailors, who had not received their pay, had already shaken his firmness; and this was followed by a revolt of the life-guards, whom he had dismissed without any cause. On this occasion Struensee acted unworthy of a man in power: he acceded to all the demands of the revolted soldiers, and sought to conciliate them by various means. So manifest a display of weakness of character, to which succeeded measures evidently calculated to secure his personal safety, led the English ambassador to warn the queen of the approaching downfall of the favourite. The regard he felt for her even made him go further, and request that she would remove Struensee from the court, in order to avert the threatening catastrophe.

*The queen, however, trusted too much to Struensee's prudence, who had now made some new changes in the department of police, with the view of securing himself against any danger. But the purport of those measures was too evident. The people naturally enough concluded that Struensee was conscious of having injured the nation; and they began to regard him only as a fortunate adventurer, whose career was drawing to a close. The partisans of Juliana Maria, and of her son, prince Frederick, hereupon planned a conspiracy with so much secrecy, that nothing transpired which could have put Struensee on his guard. Early on the morning

of the 17th of January, 1772, queen Matilda, Struensee and his brother, Brandt, and all their friends and adherents, were arrested. On the evening before, a ball had been given in the royal palace; and on that occasion Struensee, conscious of his own unpopularity, had, according to his custom, surrounded the palace with guards, on whose fidelity he thought he could rely; but general Eichstadt, who had been gained over by the opposite party, changed the soldiers; substituting his own dragoons in their place. The young queen had danced much, and closed the ball with prince Frederick, about one o'clock. At three in the morning, colonel Köller, an old enemy of Struensee, sent his officers into the palace, telling them that he had orders from the king to arrest the queen. At the same time the conspirators—the Queen-dowager, prince Frederick, Rantzau, Köller, Guldberg, and Eichstadt—went into the king's bedchamber, and forced him to sign an order for the seizure of Struensee and his partisans. The unfortunate queen was brought to Kronenburg, where she was confined until the end of May, 1772; when she was set at liberty through the influence of the English government, and removed to Celle. Meanwhile a special commission was formed, in order to try Struensee; and during his imprisonment Dr. Münter succeeded in converting him from scepticism to Christianity; the narrative of which exists in an English translation by the Rev. Mr. Wendeborn. By the subsequent sentence Struensee was to be deprived of all his dignities, and beheaded. His right hand was to be cut off, his body quartered and broken on the wheel, and his head and hand were to be stuck upon a pole. This was confirmed by the king in every point; and on the 28th of April, 1772, Struensee was decapitated, after witnessing the death of his friend Brandt. Queen Caroline never after quitted the city of Celle; and died there of a malig-

nant fever, 1775, at the premature age of 24.

The change of affairs did not long prove advantageous to the queen-dowager and her party. A new revolution took place 1784; when she was removed from power, a new council was formed, and no instrument was to be henceforth deemed authentic, unless signed by the king, and countersigned by the prince-royal, Frederick. After that time, the king, who had always displayed a degree of incapacity, was allowed no share in the government; and under the name of regent, prince Frederick, then eighteen years of age, mounted the throne, which, as **FREDERICK VI.**, he kept till his decease in 1839. **Christiern**, however, lived until 1808; and it is to the credit of his own period of rule to state, that in 1767 he abolished servitude among the peasantry, extinguished the negro slave-trade, and established a rational freedom of the press.

SPAIN UNDER CHARLES III.—**Ferdinand VI.** having died without issue, 1759, his brother, whom he had placed on the throne of Sicily, succeeded him as **Charles III.**, leaving the Sicilian crown to his son **Ferdinand**. Anxious to support the family compact of the house of Bourbon, **Ferdinand** leagued with France on all occasions, until the English seized the Spanish port of Havannah in Cuba, and thereby commanded the passage of his Plate fleet. Terms were in consequence agreed upon between England and Spain; and **Ferdinand** engaged in an expedition against **Algiers** 1775, which terminated in a complete defeat, his army, 24,000 strong, being driven back to its ships, with an immense loss of officers and men. When the British colonies of America revolted, and France had taken part with them, the Spaniards also commenced hostilities against Great Britain, retook **Minorca**, and laid siege to **Gibraltar**, then governed by general **Eliot**, 1782. It is not surprising that the possession of this first fortress of their

country by a foreign state should be a constant source of mortification to the Spanish nation. Their efforts to obtain it, however, were ineffectual, though they invested it both by sea and land. The showers of shots and shells which were directed from their land batteries, and from the various works of the garrison in return, exhibited a scene to which the descriptive powers of neither the pen nor the pencil could do justice. At length the red-hot balls from the garrison set fire to the Spanish fleet: the admiral's ship was almost the first seen in flames; and while rockets were ascending in every direction as signals of distress, vessel after vessel blew up, and the British were soon after alone occupied in attempting to rescue from a watery grave, or from the burning wrecks, those who were now incapable of acting as enemies. Peace was made with England 1783; and **Charles** was from that period, until his death in 1788, engaged in counteracting the designs of a republican party in his country, which had caught the spirit of the on-coming French revolution.

POLAND UNDER STANISLAUS II.—In a few months after the death of **Augustus II.** 1763, **Stanislaus Augustus Poniatowski** was chosen sovereign, 1764. He was the son of a private gentleman in Lithuania; and having travelled to Paris, his expenses there were so extravagant, that he was liberated from prison only by an act of generosity in the wife of a rich merchant. From Paris he came to London, and became acquainted with sir **William Hanbury**, whom he accompanied in his embassy to Russia. The elegant person of **Poniatowski** captivated the heart of the grand-duchess, afterwards **Catherine II.**; which gave so much offence to the empress **Elizabeth**, that the favourite was recalled by order of **Augustus II.** of Poland. The death of **Augustus** interested **Catherine** in the fortunes of her favourite; and through her influence he was elected his successor. He gained all hearts

by his moderation and prudence; but religious disputes disturbed the peace of the kingdom, and the protestant party, or *Dissidents*, had just been deprived, at the instance of the clergy who were Catholics, of all their political rights.

Various leagues, called *Confederacies* were formed amongst the *Dissidents*; and at last, by the interference of Prussia and Russia, they obtained a restoration of their privileges. Having so effectually silenced their enemies, the *Dissidents* now became highly factious; and political affairs formed a fresh ground of discontent. Their head was prince Radzivil; and the party, under the title of 'The National Confederacy of Poland,' amounted to 72,000 noblemen and gentlemen. A catholic association was hereupon formed in Podolia, taking the name of the 'Confederacy of Bar;' and the latter, conceiving the king to countenance the *Dissidents* in private, organized a conspiracy to assassinate him, 1771. Accordingly, on the night of September 3d, Stanislaus was attacked, while on his way to the palace from prince Czartoriski's. His coachman being commanded to stop, and not doing so immediately, several shots were fired into the carriage; when the king, finding himself deserted by his attendants, opened the door of the vehicle, with the design of effecting his escape under shelter of the night, which was extremely dark. He had just alighted, when the assassins seized him by the hair, exclaiming in Polish, with horrible execrations, 'We have thee now, thy hour is come!' One of them discharged a pistol at him so very near, that he felt the heat of the flash; while another cut him across the head with a sabre, which penetrated to the bone. They then dragged the unfortunate monarch along the ground between their horses, at full gallop, through the streets of Warsaw; till finding that their victim had nearly lost his respiration, they set him on horseback, and redoubled their speed. On

reaching the ditch which surrounds Warsaw, they obliged him to leap his horse over; but when the animal had broken his leg in the attempt, and thrown his rider into the mire, they quickly mounted the king upon another horse, all covered as he was with dirt, and having crossed the ditch, began to rifle his person, tearing from his neck the order of the Black Eagle, with its diamond cross. He requested them to leave his handkerchief, which they consented to; and his tablets escaped their rapacity.

Only seven now remained with the king, of whom Kosinski was the chief. The night was exceedingly dark; they were absolutely ignorant of the way; and, as the horses could not keep their legs, they obliged the monarch, who had lost one of his shoes, to follow them on foot. Having continued to wander through the open meadows, without following any certain path, and without getting to any distance from Warsaw, they at length came into the road which led to a village called Burakow; upon which Stanislaus warned them not to enter it, because there were some Russians stationed there, who might probably attempt to rescue him. Continuing their progress, therefore, through almost impassable lands, and ignorant of their way, the conspirators at length found themselves in the wood of Bielany, only a league distant from Warsaw. From the time they had passed the ditch, one or other of the party had repeatedly demanded of Kosinski, if it was not yet time to put the king to death; and these demands were reiterated in proportion to the obstacles and difficulties they encountered, till they were suddenly alarmed by a Russian patrol. Instantly holding council, four of them disappeared, carrying off the horses, and leaving Stanislaus with Kosinski and two others. A second Russian guard soon after challenged Kosinski; when the two who were with him fled, and the king remained alone with that rebel, both on foot.

Stanislaus, exhausted with the fatigue he had undergone, implored his conductor to stop, and suffer him to take a moment's repose. Kosinski however refused, menacing him with his naked sabre; and they continued walking till they came to the door of the convent of Bielany. Kosinski here appeared so much agitated, that the king said to him, 'Let me enter the convent of Bielany, and do you provide for your own safety.' 'No,' replied Kosinski, 'I have sworn.' Entreaty at length softened the heart of Kosinski; and the pair advanced to a neighbouring mill, to find a hiding-place. The miller, supposing them to be banditti, refused for half an hour to admit them; but when he did so, the king wrote a note to general Coccei, stating what had befallen him. Coccei instantly rode to the mill, followed by a detachment of the guards; where he found Kosinski at the door with his sabre drawn, and Stanislaus stretched on the ground in a deep sleep, covered with the miller's cloak. Coccei immediately threw himself at the king's feet, calling him his sovereign, and kissing his hand, to the no small astonishment of the miller and his family, who instantly imitated the general's example, by throwing themselves on their knees. The king having reached Warsaw again in the coach of Coccei, about five in the morning, his wound was found not to be dangerous; and he soon recovered that and the other injuries he had received during this memorable night.

So extraordinary an escape is scarcely to be paralleled in history, and affords ample matter for wonder and surprise. When the particulars were known in Warsaw, every body flocked to the palace to kiss the hand, or even to touch the clothes of the monarch; but neither his virtues nor his popularity could allay that factious spirit of the Poles, which finally caused the dismemberment of his kingdom. The partition of Poland was first projected by Frederick of Prussia. Polish or Western Prussia

had long been an object of his ambition: exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation rendered it highly valuable to that monarch; it lay between his German dominions and Eastern Prussia, and while possessed by the Poles, cut off, at their will, all communication between them. That ambitious monarch, therefore, agreed with Russia and Austria to share the devoted kingdom between them; and though the courts of London and Paris remonstrated against the usurpation, a diet ratified the proceeding in April, 1773.

A small portion around Warsaw was still left as if in mockery to Stanislaus, who continued to rule over it as the vassal of Catherine, to whom (not having seen her for 23 years), he paid a visit 1787; and after accompanying her in a tour through Tauris and Caucasus, he returned home laden with honours. This state of things continued till 1789, when the disputes between Russia and Prussia tempted the Poles to make an effort for the recovery of their freedom. In 1791 a revolution took place, and a new constitution was proclaimed, which provided for the independence of the kingdom. But the tyrannical interference of her more immediate neighbours, and the apathy of other European powers, prevented the liberation of Poland from being completed; and her chains were more firmly riveted by a second partition of her territories, 1793. The Poles made another effort to shake off the foreign yoke, 1794, under Kosciusko, but this, like the preceding, terminated unfavourably; and the wretched people, after enduring the raging fury of the Russians, led on by the ruthless Suvarov, were completely subjugated, and their very name erased from the list of European nations. The mild Stanislaus, after having been alternately the puppet of various parties, was obliged by the command of Catherine to sign a formal act of abdication, November 25, 1795. He lived in obscurity till the

accession of the emperor Paul, when he was invited to Petersburg, and there died, aged 66, 1798.

GERMANY UNDER JOSEPH II.—Joseph II. was crowned emperor on the decease of his father, Francis of Lorraine, 1765, and succeeded as king of Hungary and Bohemia, on the death of his mother, the empress Maria Theresa, 1780. He displayed a great desire to extend his dominions, and to reform their internal policy; yet without taking proper methods for accomplishing his purposes. Hence he was almost always disappointed; insomuch that he, half in earnest, wrote for his epitaph, 'Here lies Joseph, unfortunate in all his undertakings.' Yet was he in his conduct actuated by the most benevolent motives; and to be acquainted with the wants of his subjects he travelled over the greater part of his dominions. In Croatia he facilitated commercial intercourse, by the forming of a high-road between Zing and Carlstadt; at Venice, he settled the boundaries of his kingdom, and those of the oligarchy; and in Bohemia he checked the ravages of the famine which the troubles of Poland had caused. He afterwards had two interviews with the king of Prussia, whose great military character he admired; but unfortunately these visits ended in a plan for the seizure of the Polish provinces. In 1781 he passed into France; but he disregarded the pompous ceremonies with which the court wished to receive him, and found greater pleasure in examining the curiosities of Paris, the manufactures of Lyons, and the canals of Picardy. He often disguised himself to converse with obscure individuals; and that every opportunity might be indulged of displaying his humanity, he appointed one day in the week in which he received petitions, even from the meanest beggar. He saw and pitied the state of the peasants through his states, and therefore slavery was abolished in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. When England and Holland

were at variance, he took the opportunity to deprive the latter of the barrier-towns, which had been secured to her by the treaty of Utrecht; alleging, with some reason, that it was derogatory to his dignity to have so many of his cities in the hands of foreigners, and yet garrisoned at his expense. As the evacuation of these towns speedily followed, Joseph next demanded the free navigation of the Scheldt; but this the Hollanders flatly refused, and as Prussia and France seemed to approve their conduct, the emperor gave up his design, and made war with the Turks. But Joseph was not a warrior; he indeed reduced Schabatz in person, but his troops were defeated under prince Lichtenstein; and the dreadful battle of Rohadin, which lasted four days, proved fatal to his views. Laudohn by his valour restored confidence among the Imperialists, and by the taking of Darbieza, Belgrade, &c. contributed to the glory of his master's arms. The war, however, was unpopular; and a peace, hastily concluded, left the emperor the opportunity of attending to the discontents which had now been excited in the Netherlands. While his generals were occupied in reducing the Ottoman power, Joseph had still proceeded with his reforms; and after consenting to the unjust division of Poland, he produced a revolt in the Austrian Netherlands, by forcing upon them a new code of laws. The Netherlanders had always been remarkable for their attachment to the Romish form of religion; and when they saw Joseph issue orders for the abridgment of divine service, for the suppression of choir-singing, and for the abolition of papal supremacy throughout his dominions, 1787, they formed themselves into a republic, under the title of the Belgic provinces. The king, in alarm, made a promise to restore their ancient privileges, if they would return to their duty; but death seized him while labouring to put down the re-

volt, 1790, when only in his fortieth year.

DELHI UNDER SHAH ALEM, &c.—Although the murderous visir, Ghazir-uddin, had placed Shah Jehan on the throne of the Great Mongul, 1760, Ali Goher, eldest son of the late emperor Alemgir II., by the aid of the Mahrattas under Ram Raja, drove out the usurper and his patron, and was acknowledged sovereign by his now diminished subjects, under the title of Shah Alem. After a year's reign, Ahmed, the founder of Kaubul, attacked him, and entering Delhi, committed greater havoc there than any previous conqueror had wrought. The Mahrattas coming to the aid of the desponding emperor, a battle was ventured at Paniput, 1761; but Alem and his allies were terribly beaten, and the Mahratta army was reduced, by slain and prisoners, from eighty to twenty thousand men. Shah Alem, therefore, was compelled to seek refuge among the Mahrattas upon this defeat; and Delhi was occupied by the troops of Ahmed. Afghan attabegs ruled in Delhi for some time after this, till, in 1766, the Mahrattas recovered that capital, and restored Alem to his throne. A Rohilla (Afghan) chief, however, named Gholan Kadir, contrived to seize the person of the emperor, and to put out his eyes, 1798; and Delhi remained under the Afghans from that period till 1802; when Sindhia, an independent Mahratta chieftain, having gained possession of the devoted capital, kept the unhappy Alem a prisoner till the entrance of the British into Delhi, 1803, when they restored the blind emperor once more to the throne. Under English protection, the now nominal Great Mongul continued to the period of his decease, 1806; when his son, Akber Shah, the present monarch, was allowed to succeed him.

BRITISH INDIA UNDER GEORGE III.—Kasim Ali, who had been made subahdar of Bengal by the English 1760, endeavouring notwithstanding

to withdraw the privileges claimed for their trade by his benefactors, incurred their displeasure; and being deposed by them, Mir Jaffier was again placed on the throne, 1764. In 1765 colonel, now lord Clive, arrived in India again as governor and commander-in-chief of the British possessions in Bengal for the Company, but with higher power than before. Shah Alem, the Mongul emperor, having been the chief mover of Kasim's proceedings, was next attacked by the English, as well as the Nawab of Oude, Shooja-ad-Dowla, who had displayed great jealousy of the British power. A series of splendid successes attended the arms of the Company; Allahabad and Lucknow were taken, the Nawab agreed to pay the costs of the war, and the emperor not only conferred the revenues of Bengal, Orissa, and Behar upon the victors, but issued a formal proclamation, whereby he confirmed to the British, if that were needed, all the territories they had conquered from Hindustan from the first. By the talents and activity of lord Clive, the acknowledged sovereignty of the English in India commenced from this period, 1765. Clive remained in India about a year and a half; and in that short time he effected one of the most extensive, difficult, and salutary reforms ever accomplished by any statesman. He had it in his power to triple his already splendid fortune; to connive at abuses, while pretending to remove them; to conciliate the good will of all the English in Bengal, by giving up to their rapacity a helpless and timid race, who knew not where lay the island which sent forth their oppressors, and whose complaints had little chance of being heard across 15,000 miles of ocean. But he took no such advantage of his high post, and in spite of every bad passion which he raised against himself, reformed both the civil and military services, and was equally successful in his foreign policy. His last act was the placing of the government of Bengal on a new footing.

The power of the English in that province had hitherto been wholly undefined; it was unknown to the ancient constitution of the Indian empire, had been ascertained by no compact, and resembled the power which, in the last decrepitude of the Western Empire, was exercised over Italy by the great chiefs of foreign mercenaries, the Ricimers and the Odoacers, who put up and pulled down at pleasure a succession of insignificant princes, dignified with the names of Cæsar and Augustus. But as in the one case so in the other, the warlike strangers found it at length expedient to give to a domination which had been established by arms alone, the sanction of law and ancient prescription. Theodoric thought it politic to obtain from the distant court of Byzantium a commission, appointing him ruler of Italy; and Clive, in the same manner, applied to the court of Delhi for a formal grant of the powers of which he already possessed the reality. The Mongul was absolutely helpless; and, though he murmured, had reason to be well pleased that the English were disposed to give solid rupees which he never could have extorted from them, in exchange for a few Persian characters that cost him nothing. A bargain was speedily struck; and the titular sovereign of Hindustan issued a warrant, empowering the Company to collect and administer the revenues of Bengal, Orissa, and Bahar. It would have been easy, we have said, for lord Clive, during this his last administration in Bengal, to have accumulated immense riches. He might, without subjecting the rich inhabitants of the province to any pressure beyond that to which their mildest rulers had accustomed them, have received presents to the amount of 800,000*l.* a year. The neighbouring princes would gladly have paid any price for his favour. But he appears to have strictly adhered to the rules he had laid down for others. The prince of Benares offered him diamonds of great value.

The nabob of Oude pressed him to accept a large sum of money, and a casket of costly jewels. Clive courteously but peremptorily refused; and he always boasted, and it seems with truth, that his last administration diminished, instead of increasing his fortune. One large sum, indeed, he accepted. Mir Jaffier had left him by will above 60,000*l.* sterling in specie and jewels; and the rules which had recently been laid down extended only to presents from the living; they did not affect legacies from the dead. Clive took the money, but not for himself. He made the whole over to the Company, in trust for officers and soldiers invalided in their service. The fund, which still bears his name, owes its origin to this princely donation. In January, 1767, on account of the state of his health, lord Clive quitted for the last time the country on whose destinies he had exercised so mighty an influence.

Already the Carnatic, in the south of India, had been placed in the hands of the English, with the proviso they should supply the nizam with troops in his wars with Hyder Ali, who had made himself sultan of the Hindu state of Mysur, 1760. This personage, of Moslem parentage, had dethroned Cinoas, subahdar of Seringapatam under the Mongul emperor; and seizing that fortified city for a capital, had founded the Mahometan kingdom of the Mysur, and raised the standard of the Tiger. Conceiving a terrible hatred for all Europeans, he indulged the hope of driving them from Hindustan, and of himself becoming Great Mongul; and but for the opposition of the English, it is possible he might at least have reduced many of the tributary subahdars of the emperor. Having been compelled to terms by the English, 1769, peace was preserved with him for some years. In the mean time the impulse which Clive had given to the administration of Bengal was constantly becoming fainter and fainter. His policy was to a great extent abandoned; the

abuses which he had suppressed began to revive; and at length the evils which a bad government had engendered were aggravated by one of those fearful visitations, which the best governments cannot avert. In the summer of 1770 the rains failed; the earth was parched up; the tanks were empty; the rivers shrank within their beds; a famine, such as is known only in countries where every household depends for support on its own little patch of cultivation, filled the whole valley of the Ganges with misery and death. Tender and delicate women, whose veils had never been lifted before the public gaze, came forth from the inner chambers in which eastern jealousy had kept watch over their beauty, threw themselves on the earth before the passers-by, and with loud wailings implored a handful of rice for their children. The Hoogly every day rolled down thousands of corpses, close by the porticoes and gardens of the English conquerors. The very streets of Calcutta were blocked up by the dying and the dead. The lean and feeble survivors had not energy enough to bear the bodies of their kindred to the funeral pile, or to the holy river, or even to scare away the jackals and vultures, who fed on the human remains in the face of day. The extent of the mortality was never ascertained, but it was popularly reckoned by millions. This melancholy intelligence added to the excitement which already prevailed in England on Indian subjects; and while an interested party most iniquitously gave out that the famine originated in lord Clive's having formerly allowed a monopoly of rice and other articles of food (which he certainly never did), that peer's character was in every way aspersed, the proprietors of East India stock became anxious about their dividends, and new plans were devised for the government of India.

It was at length resolved that the ministers of the crown should claim a share in the rule of the Indian territories. The parliament determined

that, in future, all military correspondence should be submitted to the king's minister; that a supreme court of judicature should be sent out from England; and that the presidencies should be subject to a governor-general and council, the former to be appointed by the king. Mr. Warren Hastings, the first national governor-general, found, upon his appointment, 1773, that the Company's finances were much embarrassed, and that a general confederation against the English, planned by Hyder Ali, was in progress amongst the native powers. Notwithstanding violent opposition in his council, Mr. Hastings conducted the government through its difficulties; Sir Eyre Coote, the British general, repulsed the troops of Hyder, who had broken the treaty, 1780; the Mahrattas were humbled; and Asef-ad-Dowla, subahdar of Oude, was compelled to cede Benares to the Company. The death of Hyder 1782, however, produced a yet greater enemy to the British in his son and successor, Tippu Saheb, whom the French, upon the breaking out of the American revolution, resolved to aid; but when the consequent revolution in France had deprived the new sultan of his allies, he found some difficulty in contending with the English alone. In 1786 Mr. Hastings was recalled, and, notwithstanding his patriotic conduct, accused of offences wholly opposed to his character for humanity to have committed; and lord Cornwallis was sent out to succeed him.

CHINA UNDER KIEN-LUNG.—This distinguished eastern ruler succeeded his father Yung-ching, 1735, and lived in a state of peace until 1759, when he engaged in a contest with the Songarians; and, taking possession of all Calmuc Tartary, he extended his dominions to the frontiers of Siberia and Bucharia. The conquest of the Calmucs gave him virtual possession of Thibet; and he secured his acquisitions by establishing strong garrisons. He was, in his turn, annoyed by the invasion of the king of Bur-

mah, in which great ravages were committed; but the enemy finally retreated. Kien-Lung favoured the Christian religion, but rather in a private than in a public manner; as in 1753 he interdicted its exercise by a formal order, and had previously even persecuted those who had professed it. The missionaries were, in consequence, obliged to proceed with great caution, although several of them were in the emperor's service, and treated with great respect as men of science and learning. On the suppression of the Jesuits, in 1774, China was less visited by scientific persons than heretofore; which induced Kien-Lung to send to Canton, and invite artists and learned men of all the European nations, and particularly astronomers. This sovereign possessed, on his own part, a taste for poetry and natural history; and resolving to immortalize his victories over the Miao-tse (a predatory mountain-race, whom he nearly exterminated) by the graver, he engaged French artists to copy various Chinese pictures with that view; whereon Louis XV. had them engraven at his own cost, and presented the plates and impressions to the emperor. Kien-Lung collected a library of 600,000 volumes; amongst which he placed three on the Christian faith, written by Jesuits. In 1793 he received lord Macartney as ambassador extraordinary from Great Britain, whose mission, it was vainly hoped, would induce the Chinese to become a less unsocial people: the emperor behaved with respect to the embassy, encouraged some learned Englishmen who were in the suite to discourse on astronomy and physics, laughed heartily with his whole court when the Newtonian system of gravity was explained to him, and finally presented lord Macartney with a copy of his own poems, among which was one laudatory of the tea-plant, to be conveyed to king George III. In 1796 Kien-Lung resigned the regal power to his son Kia-king, a very inferior person to his father; and he

died, aged 90, 1799, soon after seeing the Turguts (a Mongul tribe) put themselves under the protection of China.

IRELAND UNDER GEORGE III. to the year 1789.—The banditti calling themselves *White Boys*, taking advantage of the complaints everywhere heard in Ireland against the restrictions put upon its trade by England, raised many disturbances, 1760; and these were succeeded by the *Oak Boys* and *Steel Boys*. In 1763 the common people began to descant upon the hardship of being compelled by sundry acts of parliament to work upon roads made for the convenience of individuals, and which were of no service to the public; and being exasperated by a road proposed to be made through a part of Armagh, the inhabitants most immediately affected by it rose in a body, and declared that they would make no more high-ways of the kind. As a mark of distinction, they wore oak-branches in their hats; and the insurrection becoming general, the road act was repealed. The Steel Boys were an armed party who attempted to prevent the punishment of such as were condemned to suffer for acts of violence committed under the following circumstances: The estate of an absentee nobleman happening to be out of lease, he proposed, instead of an additional rent, to take fines from his tenants. Many of those who at that time possessed his lands, were unable to comply with his terms; while others who could afford to do so, insisted upon a greater rent from the immediate tenants than they were able to pay. The usual consequences of this kind of oppression instantly took place; numbers who had been dispossessed, and thrown destitute, were forced into acts of outrage, similar to those of the *White Boys*. The commotions were at length extinguished by the arm of the law; but as no methods were taken to remove the cause, the continued distress of the people drove many thousands of them into America in a

very few years. Just at this juncture, a very material alteration took place in the constitution of the kingdom with regard to the duration of parliaments. At an early period these had continued only for a year; but afterwards they were prolonged until the death of a sovereign, unless he chose to dissolve them sooner by an exertion of his prerogative. Thus the commons of Ireland were independent of the people, and under the influence of the crown; and government soon availed itself of this power to bribe a majority to serve its purposes. Various methods were thought of to remedy this evil; but all proved ineffectual until 1768, when, during the administration of lord Townsend, a bill was sent over to England, by which it was enacted that the Irish parliament thenceforth should be dissolved every seven years. It was returned with the addition of one year; and till the Union with England, 1800, the parliaments of Ireland were octennial. The affairs of the island began now to draw to that crisis which effected another remarkable revolution in favour of the liberties of the people. The restrictions on Irish commerce went to the length of preventing Irish goods from going into Asia, excepting through English companies; while Irish wool was shut out of France by an English ordinance. An universal stagnation of business ensued; credit was very materially injured; farmers and manufacturers were pressed by extreme necessity: and both classes would have perished, had they not been supported by public charity. While things were in this deplorable situation, the American Revolution broke out, and an order was issued, 1776, that Irish linens should not henceforth be exported to America, while an embargo was laid upon the sending out of provisions from Ireland. The first measure was justified, on the ground that a colony in rebellion should not be aided in any way; but the latter was an unconstitutional stretch of prerogative, authorized for

the mere purpose of enabling a few rapacious English contractors to fulfil their engagements. After much patience, the parliament of Ireland, 1779, demanded the restoration of their commercial freedom; but when the people saw that an opposition to a relaxation of the commercial laws was general in England, resolutions were entered into to prevent the importation of British manufactures. The dread of an invasion from France, added to the circumstance of the military force of Ireland being continually drained for the support of the American war, furnished a plausible plea for forming military associations, avowedly for the defence of the country against foreign enemies. This spirit soon became general, and the numbers thus associated and armed amounted to upwards of 60,000 men. The English government saw such proceedings with alarm; to offer the least resistance was vain; and a proposal to bring the force to act under authority was rejected with scorn. Having provided for the defence of the country, the Irish began to extend their views; and a free and unlimited commerce with all the world was the great object for which no compensation could be admitted. This state of things, joined to the perilous situation of Great Britain, left to her ministers no alternative; they were under the necessity of yielding to that spirit which they were unable to repress, and forthwith laid before the house propositions for granting relief to Ireland, which were instantly and unanimously agreed to. Conciliatory measures produced but a momentary quiet among the people; and they soon declared all authority assumed by the British parliament over them a gross usurpation. The parliament of Ireland not being so forward in acceding to these views as the reformers had expected, a meeting of the volunteer corps took place February, 1782; when they declared that they would maintain with their lives and fortunes the constitutional right of the kingdom, to be governed

only by the king, and parliament of Ireland. Soon after, the duke of Portland came over as lieutenant; and in April 1782, the act asserting the sovereignty of the parliament of Great Britain and Ireland was repealed. These concessions, great and important as they were to Ireland, and dishonourable and dangerous to Great Britain, as striking at the root of the connexion between the two countries, did not produce either general or lasting tranquillity. When the government of a country, either through weakness or imprudence, is reduced to the necessity of yielding to the demands of popular clamour, its concessions only prove sources of new and more unreasonable demands: and such was the case as regarded Ireland. Agitated by the spirit of political innovation, and flushed by the late successes, the object best suited to the restless imaginations of the Irish was parliamentary reform. The firmness of the British legislature, however, dissipated this democratic chimera; and an attempt was made to adjust the commercial intercourse between the two countries. But 'the wandering dove no Irish olive found,' says an Hibernian poet. The fire of political discord sometimes ceased to blaze; but the smoking embers were ever ready to burst into flame: and such was the state of Ireland when the French Revolution began, 1789.

FOUNDATION OF THE AMERICAN UNITED STATES.—A stamp duty had been levied by Mr. Grenville in 1765 upon the British colonists in America; this was repealed soon after; but new duties were laid on paper, glass, tea, and other articles, which were all likewise repealed, save that on tea. The Americans hereupon of thirteen provinces formed an union, and assuming the title of the United States, signified their resolution to throw off their allegiance to the mother-country, unless they should be exempted, as heretofore, from calls to aid her with money, so long as they were unrepresented in

the British parliament. Delegates also were sent over to supplicate king George III. for a change of measures. Their petition, however, was rejected; and when, in April 1775, general Gage detached a party to seize some military stores at Concord in New England, many were killed on both sides, and the troops would probably have been all cut off, had not a fresh body arrived to their relief. Arms were upon this taken up in every quarter, an extensive paper currency was established, and all exportations were prohibited to places which still retained their attachment to England. The British ministry, on the other hand, increased the army, and sent over generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton. Such proceedings exasperated, but did not terrify, the insurgents; and on the 17th of June, 1775, a sanguinary action took place on Bunker's-hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 officers and men killed, and 800 wounded. George Washington was, about this time, appointed to the command of the American army; and two parties were sent against Canada, under general Montgomery and colonel Arnold, who boldly undertook to march by an untried route from Boston to Quebec. After innumerable difficulties, they reached the town; and attempting to take it by storm, Montgomery was killed, and Arnold dangerously wounded. In 1776 Boston was evacuated by the king's troops, who then made a fruitless attack upon Charlestown, South Carolina; but soon after, general Howe drove the Americans out of Long-island, so that New York was abandoned to the British forces. Offers of reconciliation were now made by Howe, and rejected. Sir Peter Parker and general Clinton took Rhode-island, and the English also made some incursions into the Jerseys. But Washington soon after surprised and took prisoners above 900 of the Hessian troops in British pay, with several stands of

arms. In September, 1777, two actions occurred between the generals Howe and Washington; in both which the former had the advantage, and Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops.

A plan was now formed for invading the revolted colonies by way of Canada, and general Burgoyne undertook the expedition; but after many difficulties, and some desperate actions, this army, consisting of 5600 men, was obliged to surrender to the American generals Gates and Arnold. An expedition up the North river was more successful, under Clinton and Vaughan, the former of whom soon after superseded general Howe as commander-in-chief; and after evacuating Philadelphia, he retreated with his army to New York, in June, 1778. In February, 1779, the French entered into an alliance with the Americans; and as affairs wore so gloomy an aspect, commissioners were sent from England to treat of peace. But the terms were rejected with disdain. The war was then carried on with mutual animosity; hostilities were declared against France; Spain, and even Holland joined in the contest against Great Britain; and the war raged, with various success, in all quarters. The day was now hastily approaching in which Great Britain was to give up all hope of conquering America; for in September, 1781, Washington so surrounded earl Cornwallis's troops, that, on the 19th of October, he was obliged to give up himself and his whole army prisoners of war; fifteen hundred seamen, with a frigate and a number of transports being included in the surrender. Peace being at this time desired by every party, the house of commons, on the 1st of March, 1782, resolved that all further attempts to reduce the Americans by force, would be injurious to the true interests of Great Britain; and in 1783 a treaty was framed, by which the respective boundaries of British North America and the United States were to

be determined. The line of demarcation, however, was so ill-defined, that for years after the separation it was a subject of dispute between the countries; nor was it finally settled until lord Ashburton's mission to America, 1842. The conflicting claims involved a territory of 105 miles extent on the due north line, or in actual quantity 10,705 square miles, being eleven million acres of land.

But though the revolted provinces were thus acknowledged free by the mother-country, 1783, general Washington (*See his Life*) was not elected president of the federal government until 1789. The presidents have been: 1789, General Washington, of Virginia county; 1797, John Adams, of Massachusetts; 1801, Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia; 1809, James Maddison, of Virginia; 1817, James Munroe, of Virginia; 1825, John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts; 1829, General Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee; 1837, Martin Van Buren, of New York; 1841, General Harrison, who died in a month after his election, and was succeeded by John Tyler, the existing president.

The United States now consist of 26 provinces, and four inferior divisions called 'territories': 6 *Northern*: Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island. 9 *Middle*: New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri. 11 *Southern*: Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Arkansas, Mississippi, Louisiana, Alabama. 4 *Territories*: Wisconsin, Iowa, Florida, Columbia District.

The president, who is elected for four years, is at the head of a senate elected every six, and of a house of Representatives, or 'Assembly,' elected every two years; and these two bodies form the supreme legislative body, called Congress. As respects the towns of the States, Pennsylvania, founded by the quaker Penn, Baltimore, Charleston, Cin-

cinnati, Washington (the capital), and New York, are all important for trade and commerce; and the last-named, New York, is supposed to exceed in commerce every other city in the world, excepting London. Timber, cotton, tobacco, grain, rice, pitch, skins, and potash, are the chief articles of export. The rivers are of great magnitude, the chief being the Mississippi, Chesapeake, Missouri, Delaware, Hudson, and Ohio; all united by noble canals, that connecting Lake Erie with the Hudson being 363 miles long. The whole territory of the States is of vast extent; and though the western part has vast tracts unoccupied (whither emigrants repair with much advantage), the population rose between 1791 and 1841 from 4 to 17 millions—a more rapid increase than that of any other known nation, and mainly owing to the facility of subsistence. The States' ships are well built and numerous; their seamen amount to 7000.

On the whole, America, as we style the United States, is an extraordinary country; and has *progressed* more (to use a favourite expression of its own) in a given space of time, than any other state of which we know the history. But to gain a correct notion of the people as a nation is not an easy matter, even after all that has been recorded in the lively, and many of them flippant and partial works of the day. It is, for instance, difficult to understand where can be the *dignity* of a state, which allows its members of congress, or parliament, so many dollars per diem for attendance; thus converting into a matter of gain, what ought to be done from the noble motives of fame, and love of country. In the vernacular tongue, again, the Americans appear to be making revolting changes, altering the emphasis, and vulgarizing the pronunciation of words, in ways that even the lovers of slang in our own country have never dreamed of. They also coin words, and use terms, already

appropriated, in some new way. Thus, in changing the emphasis, they use the noun *progress* as a verb, and say *to progress*; in vulgarizing the pronunciation, they say *sûre-ly*, likely, in lieu of *sûrely*, likely; in coining words, they call a bookbinder's shop a 'bindery;' talk of a 'sparse (scattered) population;' say a man has '*located*,' or '*squatted*,' i. e. has made his selection of land; and denote a statement at variance with truth by the indefinable term of '*squizzle*.' The '*Boston Notion*' is the title of a newspaper of the largest dimensions ever known, the sheet measuring nearly six feet by four, double as a newspaper, and with ten columns in each page. The fondness of the Americans for exaggerated accounts of facts, which they regard as the essence of wit, has made the world suppose the Munchausens to be of yankee origin. The mighty sea-serpent was the first specimen afforded us of this last transatlantic quality. But in wealth, arts, manufactures, and her navy, America is growing rich indeed; and from the natural resources of the country, it bids fair to stand, at some not far distant time, a still more imposing power. We must, in fact, regard the States as the marble in the sculptor's hand; the greater portion of the figure is yet rough and shapeless; fine points have, however, come out; and from the polish of which they are susceptible, the vein is seen to be good, and time only is wanted for its more accurate development.

The term *yankee*, as applied to the native American, is a corruption of *Anglois*, English; and *Yonglees* was the common title for the original settlers, used by the Indian nations. One Jonathan Hastings, a farmer of Cambridge, in New England, 1713, called every thing which he considered excellent, *yankee good*, meaning as good as things of English production; the college there adopted the epithet, and Jonathan's name to boot; and at length all the New Englanders obtained the appellation

of 'Jonathan Yankees' from the other states. Hence 'Jonathan' and 'Yankee' are used synonymously with 'American,' in jocose English language; though the elegant title of *yankee-doodle* is strictly an Americanism for a simple and awkward person of any country. The American Indians must have learned the term *Anglois* from French settlers, of whom there were many in the sixteenth century. Respecting the remnant of the mother-church in America, it is singular to observe that bishop White, of Pennsylvania, who died so recently as 1836, had consecrated up to the period of his death every other bishop of the existing Anglo-American church—that prelate himself having been originally consecrated by Dr. Moore, archbishop of Canterbury, before the rupture with England.

In conclusion, one singular feature in the constitution of a nation which is not only republican, but boasts of being the *freest* republic in the world, is the support it gives to actual *slavery*. The southern states are entirely cultivated by negroes brought from Africa; and the jealousy prevailing on this account between the northern and southern districts, threatens to be ere long fatal to the Union. So great is the animosity, that the subject of slavery is never discussed in the house of Assembly by the Americans, lest it should lead to blood; and Mr. Buckingham assures us, after his recent visit to Charleston, &c., 'that it would not be so dangerous for a man to preach the right of resistance to despotic authority in Petersburg or Vienna, to inveigh against popery at Rome, or to denounce the Islam at Constantinople, as it would be for him to proclaim himself, either by his pen or by his tongue, an Abolitionist, in the slave-holding states south of the Potomacs.'

FRANCE UNDER LOUIS XVI.—Louis XVI. was twenty years old when called to succeed his grandfather, Louis XV., 1774, and had

already married Marie Antoinette, sister of Joseph II. of Germany. He chose for his finance-minister, Turgot, an enlightened statesman, who perceiving the temper of the times, proposed a series of reforms in the taxation and general laws, which the count de Maurepas, and other ministers of the old school, warmly dissuaded Louis from attempting. Turgot, therefore, was dismissed, and Louis proceeded for some time cautiously and with judgment, abolishing the practice of torture, granting liberty to trade in corn between the provinces, and toleration to the protestants. But the deficiency in the treasury, and the debt of four thousand millions of livres, left by Louis XV., were the most urgent matters for consideration; and instead of regarding them, Louis engaged in a war with England in support of its revolted American colony 1779; a measure which was approved by the bulk of the people, out of revenge for the scourging they had received in the contest with England in the preceding reign. The consequences of so great a political error, however, on the part of Louis, the existence of whose throne (absolute as the form was in France) so mainly depended on the principle 'that monarchy must every where be supported,' were too soon seen to revert upon his own nation and himself in the most signal manner. France had no sooner acknowledged the independence of America, 1779, than 40,000 men were prepared in Normandy to follow up the aggression by a descent upon our island; but the Spanish and French fleets, which were to protect the landing, were dispersed by contrary winds. In America, the French auxiliary troops, joined to the Americans, were successful against the English. At sea many engagements took place between the French and English, both in the Atlantic and Indian seas, without any very decided advantage on either side; but in April, 1782, the French admiral de Grasse was completely defeated by

admiral Rodney off the island of Dominica, and taken prisoner. In September of the same year, the attack of the French and Spaniards upon Gibraltar failed; and peace being concluded at Versailles, 1783, England acknowledged the independence of the United States, and gave up Tobago and the coast of Senegal to France. Meantime the financial embarrassments of the French government went on increasing. Necker, a Genevese banker, wealthy, and retired from business, having become minister of finance, 1776, made many reforms, effected a new and more equitable assessment of the direct taxes, and established provincial assemblies of notables, who apportioned the taxes, and put an end to the enormous gains of the *fermiers-generaux*. After five years of war, his *compte rendu* showed a surplus of ten millions of livres; he had borrowed 590 millions at a less interest than had ever been known in times of war; the discount on exchequer-bills, which had been sixteen per cent., was reduced to eight; and all this without any addition to the burdens of the people. In November, 1783, by a court cabal, Necker was dismissed, and Calonne, a more pliant and courtly person, was substituted. He managed to go on a little longer, involved himself in a dispute with the parliament of Paris, and at last, being unable to proceed any further, proposed to the king to call together an assembly of the notables, selected by the king from the various provinces, to consult upon the means of supplying the deficiency in the revenue. This assembly met at Versailles, February 1787, rejected Calonne's proposal of laying additional taxes upon property, (the notables themselves were all landed proprietors), and proposed instead several measures; among others a loan on life annuities, and the formation of a council of finance. The king adopted their measures, and then dissolved the assembly. A paper-war now took place between

Necker and Calonne on the respective merits of their administrations; and Calonne being detected by the king in a falsehood, was dismissed. Several successive ministers followed for short periods; but they could do nothing to retrieve the ruinous state of affairs, and at last Necker was recalled. He stated to the king that the only resource left was to convene the states-general of the kingdom, which had not been assembled since 1614; and the king convoked them at Versailles, in May, 1789. These states had always consisted of the three orders; clergy, nobility, and the third estate, or commons. Every order formed a separate house, in which it discussed the measures proposed by the government, and decided by a majority of votes. By this means, any project of law displeasing to the two privileged orders was sure not to pass those two houses, and was therefore lost. Necker, to obviate this difficulty, proposed to give to the third estate a double vote, so as to balance the votes of the other two houses. The king, after some hesitation, gave this double vote to the third estate; and this was virtually the beginning of the Revolution.

It is remarkable that Monsieur, the king's brother, afterwards Louis XVIII., was one of those who supported this organic change. On the 5th of May, the three estates having assembled in the common-hall, the king opened the session by a temperate speech, which was much applauded; after which the clergy and nobility withdrew to their separate rooms, to deliberate among themselves. The third estate remained in the common-hall, and in the following sittings proposed that the three orders should assemble and deliberate *together*, which the other two refused. On the 10th the third estate elected Bailly for their president; and on the following day they were joined by several deputies of the clergy. On the 17th, on the motion of the abbé Sieyès, the third estate, joined by many of the clergy,

constituted themselves 'a national assembly,' and resolved, that as soon as their body should be prorogued or dissolved, all taxes not sanctioned by it should cease to be legal. The court was alarmed at these innovations, and the king announced that he was going to hold a *royal* sitting. Meantime the doors of the assembly were closed, and a guard placed there to prevent the deputies from entering. Bailly led them on the 20th to the 'Jeu de Paume;' where they swore not to separate until they had framed and enforced a new constitution for the kingdom, and the redress of existing grievances. On the 23d the king convoked the three estates in the common-hall; and after qualifying the resolutions of the 17th as illegal, he ordered the estates to leave the hall, and withdraw each to its appropriate chamber, to deliberate there upon certain subjects which he should lay before them. After the king's departure, the third estate, joined by part of the clergy, refused to leave the hall; and when the grand-master of the ceremonies came to enforce the king's order, Mirabeau answered that they were there to fulfil their duty towards their constituents, and that force alone should disperse them. On the 25th part of the deputies of the nobility joined the third estate, and the name of 'National Assembly' was publicly recognised. This assembly instantly changed the old monarchy into a representative republic, with a single chamber, headed by an hereditary magistrate with the name of *king*, whose power was rendered insignificant and nugatory. It suppressed not only the feudal jurisdictions, but the manorial dues and fees, the titles of nobility, the tithes and convents, and the corporations of trades. It confiscated the property of the church, abolished the old division of the kingdom by provinces, and ordered a new one by departments. Meantime insurrections broke out in Paris and in the provinces, July, 1789; the chateaux and manorial residences of the no-

bility and gentry were burned every where about the kingdom; and the French guards in Paris, under the plea of protecting the state, seized the great repository of arms at the Hotel des Invalides, and, aided by the populace, invested the state prison of the Bastille. The Revolution had now commenced in fact; of which an ample account will be found in our concluding volume.

PORTUGAL UNDER MARIA ISABEL I. —Joseph (Jossé) I. was succeeded, 1777, by his daughter, Maria Francisca Isabel I., the wife of her uncle Don Pedro, called by courtesy Pedro III. The marquis of Pombal, who had been chief minister under king Jossé, was retained in office, and continued the line of policy with which he had commenced, and which had especially in view the paramount influence of the regal over the ecclesiastical power in Portugal. It was in this spirit that he had, in the previous reign, exerted his utmost power to depress the Jesuits; and every attempt against the life of the king, every petty plot, and, as a witty ambassador said, even the Lisbon earthquake itself, was set down studiously by him to their account. It was, indeed, mainly by his exaggerated and false statements that the Bourbon kings had united and compelled pope Clement XIV. to abolish the order of Loyola. He had in like manner laboured to deprive the nobles of their privileges; immunities which, while they diminished the splendour of the crown, acted often as severe restraints upon the king's advisers themselves, who had often been dismissed on a sudden, and without any assigned cause, at their simple suggestion. A powerful party, however, of the titled class induced Don Pedro and the queen to dismiss the reforming premier, 1780; and perhaps the country was thereupon little better guided for the next nine years, by their own ill-digested plans. The depressed clergy too, at that time a body celebrated for their ill education, their consequent igno-

rance, and their aspirations after secular power, were pursuing a course likely to produce considerable disorder, when the state of the queen's health compelled a thorough change of counsels. In 1789 her majesty

was proved to be sinking into a state of profound melancholy ; and as nothing could rouse her, her son, Dom Joao Maria Jossé, prince of Brazil, was declared regent of Portugal, with full regal powers.

EMINENT PERSONS.

ROBERT CLIVE (1725—1774), born at Styche, Shropshire, the family seat of his ancestors, was some little time at Merchant Tailor's school, and in 1743 went out as a writer to India ; but exchanging the civil for the military service, he distinguished himself at the siege of Pondicherry, 1747, though but an ensign. At the siege of Devi Kotah, he volunteered to storm the town ; and he and three others only out of 34 returned. On the cessation of hostilities, he resumed his civil office ; and on coming back to England, 1753, his services were acknowledged by the present of a sword set with diamonds, by the court of directors. He returned to India as governor of fort St. David, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel ; and he assisted admiral Watson in the conquest of the pirate Angria, and took Fort William in Bengal. At the battle of Plassy he routed Surajah Dowla, and settled Jaffier Ali Cawn on the throne of Muxadabad. He was made an Irish peer on his coming to England in 1760, and four years after went back as governor-general ; when the vigour of his counsels restored tranquillity to the East. His final return to England was in 1767 ; and having amassed a vast fortune, he did not escape the malevolence of enemies. Some of the commons' members at length moved in the house, 1773, that, in the acquisition of his wealth, he had abused the powers with which he had been intrusted ; but after a little consideration, the house voted that he had rendered great services to his country. From that time his broken health, and probably his injured peace of mind, rendered him a prey to the most gloomy depression of spirits ; under the morbid influence of which he put an end to his life, at the age of

50, 1774. As he had no seat in the upper house, lord Clive sat as member for Shrewsbury from 1760 till his decease. There can be no question that the East India Company owes, humanly speaking, every thing to lord Clive. Lord Chatham well styled him the 'heaven-born general, who, without experience, surpassed all the officers of his time.' His talents in fact were as great, as his political morality was indisputable ; and the services done to his country have paralyzed the disposition to investigate as if suspecting into the character of them.

FREDERICK LORD NORTH (1732—1792), eldest son of Francis, second earl of Guilford, was educated at Eton, and Trinity college, Oxford. After passing some time at Leipsic, he obtained a seat in the commons ; and between 1759 and 1770, he held various situations in the ministry. In the last-named year, he was appointed first lord of the treasury, with power to select a cabinet, of which he was to be the head. His administration lasted till 1782, during a period of peculiar difficulty and danger. Having accepted office at a time when the court party had become unpopular, on account of the secret influence supposed to be possessed by lord Bute, something of that unpopularity attached to the whole course of lord North's ministry. But this was greatly augmented by the unfortunate contest which was carried on with our North American colonies, and which ended in the loss of that part of the British empire, after the expenditure of a vast deal of the national wealth, and the sacrifice of multitudes of lives. For this disastrous measure of subjugating America, the premier appears to have been a sincere advocate ; and in de-

fending his proceedings against the attacks of Mr. Fox and his party in parliament, he evinced a degree of political skill and resolution, which at least did honour to him as a minister driven to assign his motives. After his dismissal from office, his opponents, instead of instituting against him that impeachment with which they had often threatened him, suffered him to form a league with the whigs, which led to the famous coalition ministry; but this heterogeneous administration lasted only a few months, after which lord North held no responsible station in the state. He died, aged 60, 1792, having in 1790 succeeded his father as earl of Guilford. He is, however, best remembered as lord North. His lordship was very amiable in private life. He was, moreover, a highly cheerful and facetious person, and so fond of repartee, that he could jest even upon his own ultimate deprivation of sight. His political antagonist, colonel Barré, was subject to the same misfortune. Replying to some observations of the colonel in the house of commons, lord North once said, 'Notwithstanding the hostility which the honourable gentleman opposite has shown towards me, yet I am certain that there are no two persons in the world who would be more happy to see each other than he and I.'

WILLIAM MURRAY (1705—1793), fourth son of David, viscount Stormont, was born at Perth in Scotland, and educated at Westminster-school, and Christ-church, Oxford. On his return from his travels he entered at Lincoln's-inn, and gradually rose to eminence; being distinguished as an eloquent orator, both at the bar, and in the house of commons. He was, in 1742, appointed solicitor-general; and during the trial of lord Lovat, he displayed so much candour and liberality, that he received the thanks of the accused, as well as of the president of the court. In 1754 he was attorney-general, and two years after was made chief justice of the king's

bench, and then created baron Mansfield. After the accession of George III. he was attacked by malevolent insinuations; but the virulence of party failed to influence his conduct. To this unworthy treatment he alluded in pathetic, but firm language, on Wilkes's outlawry; and he concluded by observing, 'that he honoured the king, and respected the people; but that many things acquired by the favour of either were not worth his ambition; and that he wished popularity, but such popularity as followed, not that which is run after.' He was three times offered the great seal, but declined; and, in 1776, he was created an earl, with remainder to his nephews. In 1780, when London exhibited a scene of tumult and plunder, his house in Bloomsbury-square was burned by the mob; and with it a very large collection of books and valuable manuscripts. When offered an honourable compensation by the commons, he refused to accept any thing, but devoted himself with increasing assiduity to the duties of his high office. After filling with unshaken integrity this situation for many years, the infirmities of age became so great that he resigned it 1788, and died at Caen-wood, 1793, in the 89th year of his age. The character of lord Mansfield stands high in the records of fame, for integrity, wisdom, and sagacious discernment. Whilst he presided in the king's bench, the court was remarkable for the regularity, the punctuality, and the despatch which his attentive mind introduced. With such impartiality, too, were his decisions given, that only in two cases, where the opinions of the judges were very discordant, the judgment of the court was reversed.

GEORGE WASHINGTON (1732—1799) was born in the county of Fairfax in Virginia. He was descended from an English family, which emigrated from Cheshire about 1630, for Virginia. He was educated under a private tutor, and embraced

the military profession. His abilities were first employed by Dinwiddie in 1753, in making remonstrances to the French commander on the Ohio, for the infraction of the treaty between the two nations; and he afterwards negotiated with the Indians on the back settlements, and for his services was thanked by government. In the expedition of general Braddock he served as his aide-de-camp; and he displayed great talents in conducting the retreat, and in saving the army from a dangerous position. He retired with the rank of colonel, but left the peaceful employments of an agriculturist at Mount Vernon, to become senator in the national council for Frederick county, and afterwards for Fairfax. In the American war, he was early selected by the leaders of the insurrection to command the provincial troops; and by his prudence, valour, and presence of mind, he finally triumphed over all opposition. Distinguished by the name of 'the American Fabius,' he showed himself master of military stratagems; and while some blamed his precautions as cowardice, he proved that he could fight, whenever he calculated upon the prospect of decisive advantages or certain victory. A more rash general might have endangered the safety of his country, by facing openly the disciplined troops of England; but the sagacious general knew that cautious operations would prove more decisive than the most brilliant victory, over an enemy whose resources were supplied with difficulty from distant Europe. After seeing the independence of his country established in 1783, he resigned his high office of commander to the Congress, and, in the midst of the applauses of his fellow-citizens, retired to a private station. With firmness he declined the honours offered to him by the gratitude of America; he even defrayed all his military expenses during the eight years of the war; and he modestly declared himself satisfied with the recollection of his services, and

the good opinion of his fellow citizens. In 1789 he was named President of the United States, a post for which his wisdom and moderation so fully qualified him. It was a period of difficulty; the unsubdued spirit of liberty in America was again kindled into a flame by the revolution of France: and not a few of the Americans sighed at home for that equality, which seemed to promise more extensive happiness to the renovated subjects of Louis XVI. Washington anticipated the plans of the factious, the prudence of his administration checked insurrection, discontent was silenced, and the people, whom the intrigues of the French envoy roused to rebellion, were convinced of the wildness of their measures, and of the wisdom of their governor. The president completed in 1796 the business of his office, by signing a commercial treaty with Great Britain; and he then resigned, at a moment when all hearts and all hands were united again to confer upon him the sovereignty of the country. Restored to his privacy at Mount Vernon, he devoted himself to the cultivation of his lands; and though he accepted the command of the army in 1798, it was more to unite together his fellow-citizens to one general point, the good of the country, than to gratify ambition or pride. He expired at his seat, rather unexpectedly, after a few days' illness, 1799, at the age of 67. He was buried with national honours; and a new city was erected on the borders of the Potomac, bearing his name, as the capital of the provinces to which he had given freedom.

GREGORY ALEXANDER POTEMKIN, (1736—1791), a Russian prince, was of Polish extraction, and while an ensign in the guards, first attracted the notice of the empress Catherine; through whose favour he rapidly rose to the post of war-minister, and the rank of prince of the empire. By his advice Cherson was founded in 1778 on the Dnieper, important for its maritime situation, and well protected

by a population of above 40,000 inhabitants. To obtain the ribbon of St. George, bestowed only on victorious generals, he persuaded his mistress to declare war against the Turks, 1787; and at the head of 150,000 men, he laid siege to Oczakow, which he took by assault, after slaughtering 25,000 men. He was received by Catherine with unusual pomp; the most splendid presents were lavished upon him; and he was at once enabled to indulge that fondness for debauched extravagance, which covered his table with the choicest dainties. He attended afterwards the congress of Yassi, but his intemperance brought on indisposition; and as he wished to remove to the more salubrious air of Nicolaef, his distemper grew so violent, that he alighted from his carriage by the way, and expired suddenly under a tree, 1791, aged 55. His remains were conveyed to Cherson, and buried by the empress under a magnificent mausoleum. All historians agree in stating the character of Potemkin to have been that of the man without liberal education raised from nothing to the height of influence and authority: a compound of hauteur and meanness.

THE PRINCESS DASCHKAW (1744—1810), daughter of Count Worontzow, and aunt of the dowager countess of Pembroke, born at St. Petersburg, and at the age of sixteen was married to Prince Daschkaw, a young nobleman of appropriate age. The union, being one of affection on both sides, was productive of unmixed gratification to all parties, until its premature termination, four years after, by the prince's death; after which the princess, who had been devotedly attached to her husband, never seems to have thought of a second marriage. Being much about the court, and somewhat fond of political intrigue, she became a main actor in the revolution of 1762, which dethroned Peter III., and placed Catherine II. in his room; and on the day of that event she was on horseback, in man's

attire, at the head of the revolted troops, and directed in person all the movements, and even the thoughts of the empress. As lady of honour to Catherine, this singular woman continued to act a political part for some time after; and subsequently visiting England and France, and passing several years in travelling through the principal states of Europe, she became acquainted with all the leading political characters of the day. On her return to St. Petersburg, she was (*mirabile dictu*) appointed Director of the Academy of Arts and Sciences, wherein the celebrated Euler was a professor; and this post she practically filled to the satisfaction of all parties for several years, during which she not only effected many reforms in the academy, but projected and executed a comprehensive dictionary of the Russian language—the first ever produced. In 1796 the princess obtained permission from the empress to retire from public life; but this circumstance did not, on the death of Catherine shortly afterwards, screen her from the virulent persecution of her successor Paul, and she subsequently passed several years in the rigid Siberian exile to which he condemned her. She was at length allowed to return to her country-seat, but was never received into the favour of Paul. On his death, however, she once more visited the capital, to be present at the coronation of Alexander; and after many years of seclusion at Troitskoe, she died at Moscow, 1810, aged 66. The princess's autobiography is both interesting and important, and affords a key to the singular combination of political contrivances and accidental occurrences which raised Russia suddenly, at the beginning of the nineteenth century, to the rank of a great European power.

HENRY HOME (1696—1782), born of an ancient family at Kames, in Berwick, was bound to a writer of the signet, but, with laudable spirit, fitted himself for the Scottish bar, to which he was called 1724. When

the Pretender's invasion occurred, 1745, he retired to the country, and commenced a series of legal works, which both established his fame as an indefatigable labourer in research, and obtained him a judgeship of session, 1752; on which occasion he assumed the title of lord Kames, according to Scottish practice. His mind was now turned at all leisure moments to metaphysical studies; and maintaining a correspondence with bishops Butler and Berkeley, and other eminent ontologists, he published his *Essays on Morality and Natural Religion*, which subjected him to several attacks, on the ground that he supported the doctrine of philosophical necessity, the palladium of sceptical writers. His subsequent '*Elements of Criticism*,' wherein he endeavours to establish a new theory, on the principles of human nature, and abolishes all established rules of composition, is his most talented and original work; and, with all its hypothesis, it is a very amusing production. His '*Sketches of the History of Man*' followed; but his remaining years were devoted to agriculture, and writing upon that art; and he died, aged 86, 1782. The most useful and legal work of lord Kames is '*The Statute Law of Scotland abridged*.'

WILLIAM BLACKSTONE (1723—1780) was son of a silk-mercator of London, and born there. He received his education at the Charterhouse, and Pembroke college, Oxford; and after obtaining Mr. Benson's medal for his verses on Milton, entered at the Middle Temple. His forensic eloquence was not remarkable, but his writings displayed deep penetration; and the lectures he delivered, as Vinerian professor, on the laws of England, received the most unbounded applause. As a fellow of All Souls, he promoted the completion of Coddington library, and improved the college estates, and was then elected principal of New Inn hall. After sitting in parliament for Hindon and Westbury,

he was knighted, and made a judge of the King's Bench, 1770, and soon after of the Common Pleas, and died, aged 57, 1780. Judge Blackstone's fame now rests on his '*Commentaries on the Laws of England*,' in which the author does not confine himself to the humble duty of an expositor, but aspires to the higher character of a philosophical writer on jurisprudence; and having been preceded by no authors in the same line, his manner of accomplishing his task is entitled to great praise. It must not, however, be regarded as a philosophical investigation into the grounds and merits of the English laws and constitution, so much as an elegant exposition and defence of an existing system. Whatever he found instituted, it was his purpose to support and eulogize; and consequently he rather acquaints us with the legal reasons for what is established, than instructs us in the general principles of national legislation.

LEONARD EULER (1707—1783) was born at Basil. His father, intending him for the ministry, instructed him in mathematics, as the groundwork of all other improvements; but his genius was bent on philosophical pursuits. Encouraged by the Bernoullis, he followed them, 1727, to St. Petersburg, where Catherine I. had founded an academy of sciences; and he was appointed adjutant to the mathematical class. His publications on the nature and propagation of sound, on curves, on the calculus integralis, the movement of the celestial bodies, and other useful subjects, raised his reputation among philosophers. While his fellow-academicians asked four months to complete an important calculation, he finished it in three days; but so intense was his application, that it produced a fever, which robbed him of the sight of one of his eyes. He gained, in 1740, with Maclaurin and D. Bernoulli, the prize of the academy of Paris, on the Nature of Tides; and these three illustrious men traced the effects, though by

different roads, to the same causes. In 1741 he removed to Berlin, and assisted in the establishment of an academy of sciences. Still indefatigable, he produced his theory of the motions of the planets and comets, the theory of magnetism, the theory of light and colours against Newton's system of emanations, and the theory of the equilibrium and motion of floating bodies and the resistance of fluids. In 1773 he published his '*Theorie Complette de la Construction et de la Manœuvre des Vaisseaux*,' which was translated into all languages, and was rewarded by the French king, as his theorems before had been rewarded with 300*l.* from the British parliament. His labours of thirty years on the most intricate subject of infinitesimals were communicated to the public by his '*Introduction to the Analysis of Infinitesimals*,' and followed by lessons on the '*Calculus Integralis and Differentialis*.' While arranging his thoughts on the motion of the aerostatical globes, and conversing with Lexell on the new planet, he was suddenly attacked by a fit of apoplexy. The stroke was immediately fatal. 'I am dying,' were his last words, and a few hours after he expired, 1783, aged 76 years. Euler was a man, as his impartial biographer, Fuss, has mentioned, of astonishing powers, great and extensive erudition, and of the most retentive memory. He could repeat the whole of the *Æneid*; and in one night he calculated in his head the six first powers of all the numbers above twenty, which he repeated the next day correctly to his astonished friends. Affable, humane, and benevolent in his conduct, he could abandon the most abstruse studies to mix with the general amusements of society. His piety was ardent but sincere; he loved mankind, and defended the great truths of religion with earnestness and fidelity. He was twice married, and was father of thirteen children; four of whom only survived him.

HORACE WALPOLE (1717—1797),

youngest son of sir Robert, the celebrated minister, was educated at Eton, and King's college, Cambridge, and distinguished himself at the university by his verses in honour of Henry VI. Under his father, he obtained, in 1738, the office of inspector of exports and imports, which he exchanged for that of usher to the exchequer; with which he held the place of comptroller of the pipe, and of clerk of the escheats in the exchequer for life, of the annual value of nearly 5000*l.* In 1739 he travelled on the continent, and with Gray, the poet, made the tour of France and Italy; but a dispute at Reggio unfortunately separated the two friends, whose intimacy had begun at Eton, and was renewed in 1744, to the honour of both. On Mr. Walpole's return in 1741, he was elected into parliament; but though he was in the house above twenty-five years, he was never distinguished as a speaker, except on one occasion, in defence of his father, in 1742. On giving up his seat, he retired to Strawberry-hill, near Twickenham, which he had purchased in 1747, and tastefully adorned with all the features of Gothic times. In this charming spot he opened, in 1757, a printing-press, where he published first the two odes of Gray, and afterwards other works in an elegant style. On the death of his nephew, in 1791, he succeeded to the title of earl of Orford; but rank had no charms for him. He never took his seat among the lords, and with reluctance submitted to the empty title: which he contemptuously called a new name for a superannuated old man of seventy-four. Respectable as a man of letters, he was distinguished for his extensive information; he was polite in his manners, facetious in his conversation, and in his sentiments lively, intelligent, and acute. His epistolary style was of the most facile character. If avarice and vanity were, according to one of his biographers, his leading foibles, affability and a companionable temper were

his most distinguishing virtues. He was of a charitable disposition; but it must be confessed, that no rich man ever existed who had less the character of a liberal patron. He died 1797, aged 80. The best of his works are, a 'Catalogue of Royal and Noble Authors,' 'The Castle of Otranto,' an interesting romance written in eight days, and 'The Mysterious Mother,' a tragedy.

SAMUEL JOHNSON (1709—1784), born at Lichfield, was the son of a bookseller, and was educated at Lichfield school. He was eventually entered, 1728, at Pembroke college, Oxford. His exercises in the university displayed, as they had done at school, superior powers; and his translation of Pope's *Messiah* into Latin verse appeared so highly finished, that the poet spoke with the highest respect of his translator, and declared that posterity would doubt which poem was the original. Unhappily Johnson had to struggle with poverty; and in consequence of the insolvency of his father, he left the university, 1731, without a degree. After his father's death, his whole property amounted to only 20*l.*; and thus destitute, he accepted the offer of an usher'ship at Bosworth school. The situation proved disagreeable, and in a few months he removed to Birmingham, where he published his first literary labour, a translation of *Lobo*. In 1734 he returned to Lichfield; and the next year he married Mrs. Porter, a widow of Birmingham, much older than himself, and not possessed of the most engaging manners, or the most fascinating person. As she brought him 800*l.* he fitted up a house at Edial, near Lichfield, for the reception of pupils; but as he had only three scholars, among whom was David Garrick, subsequently the famous actor, the plan was dropped. About this time, under the patronage of Mr. Walsley, his earliest friend, he began his '*Irene*;' and in March, 1737, he first visited London, in company with his pupil, Garrick, like himself in quest of employment. In

London he formed an acquaintance with Cave, the printer of the '*Gentleman's Magazine*;' and his first performance in that work was a Latin alcaic ode, inserted in March, 1738. Thus encouraged, he returned to Lichfield to fetch his wife; and from 1740 to 1743, he was employed in the service of this periodical work, and during that period wrote the parliamentary debates, valuable not as the effusions of orators, but as the bold composition of a man of genius on such subjects as were supposed to engage the legislators of the age. In 1738 he published his '*London*,' in imitation of Juvenal's third satire, which was honoured with the commendation of Pope, and passed to a second edition in one week. But Johnson still felt the pressure of poverty, and therefore applied for the mastership of a school in Leicestershire; but though recommended by lord Gower, he was disappointed, as he had not the requisite degree of M.A. His attempts to be admitted at Doctors'-commons, without academical honours, proved equally unsuccessful; and therefore he determined to depend on his pen for subsistence. He, in 1744, published the '*Life of Savage*,' a work of great merit, which, in the elegant language of pathetic narration, exhibited the sufferings and the poverty of a friend, whose calamities he himself had shared and bewailed. He began, in 1747, his edition of *Shakspeare*, and published the plan of his *English Dictionary*. This latter work was undertaken under the patronage of the booksellers; and the lexicographer engaged a house in Gough-square, where, with the assistance of six amanuenses, he proceeded rapidly in the execution of his plan. This great work, so valuable to the nation, and so honourable to the talents of the author, appeared, May, 1755, in two volumes, without a patron. Lord Chesterfield, who had favoured the undertaking, but had afterwards neglected the author, endeavoured, by a flattering recommendation of the work in

'The World,' to reconcile himself to his good opinion; but Johnson spurned at the mean artifice of his courtly patron; and his celebrated letter reflected, with independent spirit and in severe language, against his selfish views. The Dictionary produced 1575*l.*; but as the money had been advanced during the composition, there was no solid advantage to be procured on the publication, and fame could ill supply bread to the indigent author. In 1749 the 'Irene' had been brought forward on the stage, by the friendship of Garrick, but with no success. The 'Rambler' was undertaken March, 1750; and till March, 1752, when it ceased, a paper appeared every Tuesday and Saturday: and it is remarkable that, during the whole of that time, only five numbers were contributed by other authors. These publications, though popular, still left Johnson in distressed circumstances; and in 1756, the year after the publishing of his Dictionary, he was arrested for a debt of five guineas, from which the kindness of Richardson relieved him. In 1758 he began the 'Idler,' continued for two years with little assistance; and, on the death of his mother in 1759, that he might pay some decent respect to her funeral, he in a single week wrote his 'Rasselas,' and obtained for it, from the booksellers, the sum of 100*l.* Happily, however, these high services to literature were not to pass unrewarded: in 1762 he was presented by the king with a pension of 300*l.* per annum, for the moral tendency of his writings, a character to which his Rambler was most fully entitled. From public motives, and not from flattery, Johnson afterwards became a political writer; and his 'False Alarm,' and his 'Thoughts on the Falkland Islands,' displayed the great powers of his mind in the defence of the measures of the court. These services first suggested the idea of introducing him into the house of commons; but lord North did not attend to the recommendation of Mr. Strahan, and of

other gentlemen, who wished to see the gigantic powers of this literary hero exerted in parliament, and the proposal was dropped. In 1775 Johnson was complimented by the university of Oxford with the degree of LL.D. by diploma, as he had before received from them the degree of A.M. and the same honours from Dublin. In 1777 he began his 'Lives of the Poets,' which he finished in 1781; a work of great merit, and which exhibits the soundness of the critic, the information of the biographer, and the benevolent views of the man. In 1781 the loss of his friend Mr. Thrale, in whose hospitable house at Streatham, Surrey, he had passed fifteen of the happiest years of his life, affected him much; he found his health gradually declining, from the united attacks of the dropsy and of an asthma; but while he expressed a wish to remove to the milder climates of France and Italy, the applications of his friends for the increase of his pension proved abortive. During the progressive increase of his complaints, he divided his time in acts of devotion, and in classical recreations; and in his sleepless nights, he translated several of the Greek epigrams of the 'Anthologia' into Latin verse. Being naturally of a hypochondriac temperament, which was greatly fostered by a life of intense thought, and a mind always at work, Johnson, at one time of his life, had a great horror of death, and could not bear to have the subject spoken of in his presence; but as he approached the period of his departure his fears were allayed, and he expired, in his 76th year, December, 1784, full of resignation, strong in faith, and joyful in the hope of a happy resurrection. His remains were deposited in Westminster-abbey, near the grave of his friend Garrick; and the nation has paid an honourable tribute to his memory, by erecting to him a monument in St. Paul's, with an elegant epitaph from the pen of Dr. Parr. His letters, and every particular respecting his

character, opinions, &c., have engaged the attention of the public, in the various publications of Mr. Srahan, Mrs. Piozzi, and others; and particularly in the interesting account of his life by Boswell.

In his person, Johnson was large, corpulent, and unwieldy, with little of the graces of polished life. He was subject to convulsive motions, and in his dress singular and slovenly. His conversation, however, made amends for the deficiencies of his personal appearance; and though, from the superior powers of his mind, the great independence of his character, and the gigantic vigour of his genius, he was positive, and impatient of contradiction, he was ever interesting and instructive, and exhibited at all times great goodness of heart, unshaken steadiness of principle, and commanding benignity. Humane, charitable, generous, and affectionate, with all his little defects of temper, it may truly be said, that there was scarcely a virtue in principle which he did not possess. His goodness flowed from the heart, and his religion was the pure stream from the soul, humble, devout, contrite, pious. As a literary character, his name stands on very high ground; and correctness, elegance, and variety, every where clothed under a strong and nervous style, captivate, enliven, and instruct us.

It was in 1764 that a party of his friends, for the purpose of securing his society at stated times, instituted a club, which came, after the death of Garrick, to be called 'The Literary Club.' Sir Joshua Reynolds was the first proposer of it; and it met at the Turk's Head, in Gerrard-street, Soho, one evening in every week, at seven. In 1791 it had increased from its original number of nine to thirty-five members; and it still continues its meetings at the Thatched House in St. James's-street, having among its living subscribers the earl of Aberdeen, lord Brougham, rev. Dr. Burney, bishop Copleston (Llandaff),

bishop Blomfield (London), viscount Mahon, and other intellectual personages. The original nine were—1. *Dr. Johnson*; 2. *Sir Joshua Reynolds*; 3. *Edmund Burke*; 4. *Robert Nugent*, an Irish gentleman, who married the sister of secretary Craggs, and who was created earl Nugent, 1777. To him Goldsmith addressed his 'Haunch of Venison;' and he died in 1788. 5. *Topham Beauclerk*, only son of lord Sidney Beauclerk, third son of the first duke of St. Alban's. 6. *Bennet Langton*, of Langton, Lincolnshire, born 1737, and educated at Trinity college, Oxford. He had a considerable knowledge of Greek, and once practised as an engineer. He died 1801. 7. *Oliver Goldsmith*; 8. *Anthony Chanier*, M.P. for Tamworth, and under secretary of state from 1775, until his decease in 1780. 9. *Sir John Hawkins*, a London solicitor, who was knighted in 1772 for dispersing some rioters in Moorfields. He wrote a good deal; but the best of his works is a history of music, in five quarto volumes. His life of Johnson is a very poor affair, got up to supply the hiatus of the booksellers. He died, aged 70, 1789.

MR. BOSWELL, a subsequent member of the club, and who had followed Dr. Johnson every where for years, as if magically *charmed* by the great moralist, noting down his commonest actions, and recording, whether good or bad, all he said, has certainly, in giving us the life of one who bantered him from day to day, without his seeming to be at all sensible of the doctor's sarcasms, compiled the most interesting piece of biography extant. The book is a journal of Johnson's life; and when the great moralist appears on the scene, we hear him speak, and, with our mind's eye, comprehend the dimensions and peculiarities, the involuntary startings and the voluntary dogmatism of the great lexicographer, to the very letter. 'As we close this book,' say the Edinburgh reviewers, 'the club-room is before us, and the table on which

stands the omelet for Nugent, and the lemons for Johnson. There are assembled those heads, which live for ever on the canvass of Reynolds. There are the spectacles of Burke; and the tall thin form of Langton; the courtly sneer of Beauclerk, and the beaming smile of Garrick; Gibbon tapping his snuff-box, and Sir Joshua with his trumpet in his ear. In the foreground is that strange figure, which is as familiar to us as the figures of those among whom we have been brought up;—the gigantic body; the huge massy face, seamed with scars of disease; the brown coat, the black worsted stockings, the gray wig with the scorched foretop; the dirty hands, with the nails bitten and pared to the quick. We see the eyes and mouth moving with convulsive twitches; we see the heavy form rolling; we hear it puffing; and then comes the 'Why, sir?' and the 'What then, sir?' and the 'No, sir!' and the 'You don't see your way through the question, sir!'

JAMES BOSWELL (1740—1795), eldest son of lord Auchinleck, one of the Scotch judges, was born at Edinburgh. He studied civil law at Glasgow and Edinburgh; and though inclined to a military life, he was called to the Scottish bar. As his heart was open and generous, he cultivated the friendship of men of worth and learning, among whom were lord Somerville, Mr. Temple, and particularly Dr. Johnson, to whom he was introduced in 1763. A desire of studying men and manners induced him to travel; and after crossing Germany and Switzerland, and paying his respects both to the poet of Ferney and to the philosopher of Geneva, he went to Corsica. The kindness he met with in that island from general Paoli, was repaid by encomiums in the history which he published of it; a volume which has to add to the commendation of Johnson the labours of Dutch, German, Italian, and French translators. He returned to Scotland in 1766; and at the jubilee at Stratford-on-Avon, he

supported, at a masquerade, the favourite character of an armed Corsican chief. As his intimacy with Johnson was founded on reciprocal esteem, it is a happy circumstance that he began early to collect materials for the life of this extraordinary man. Besides Dr. Johnson's life, he published an account of his tour to the Hebrides with the great moralist,—two letters to the people of Scotland,—and essence of the Douglas cause, the latter being a legal case in which he bore a conspicuous part. Boswell had a strong predilection for London; and he not only visited it frequently, but at last settled there in 1785, and was called to the English bar. He did not, however, meet with success; but though he possessed not the superior powers of eloquence, he was distinguished as a lawyer by strong sense and deep penetration. He was suddenly, on his return from Auchinleck, seized with a disorder which proved fatal, and died at his house in Portland-street, 1795, aged 55. Though the man of wit, the pleasing and lively companion, Boswell was subject to moments of constitutional melancholy; and it was during those depressions he wrote his 'Hypochondriac,' a periodical publication, in 1782. His character is painted in flattering colours by Johnson, who says in his *Tour to the Hebrides* that 'Boswell would help his inquiries, and that his gaiety of disposition and civility of manners were sufficient to counterbalance the inconveniences of travel, in countries less hospitable than those he had passed.' It must not, however, be concealed that Mr. Boswell frequently received from the somewhat irritable lexicographer, the most offensive personal sallies; and that, whether in public among friends, or in Johnson's private apartments, these attacks came upon the doting biographer, he bore them with astonishing meekness—sometimes even owning he had deserved them. Such indeed was Boswell's devotion to the Doctor, that he could

even hear him abuse his native country, Scotland, and not upbraid him. That he has registered these sallies, may certainly be taken as a proof of the truth of his book; but he would have evinced more self-respect, we think, had he omitted mention of them. To bear the personal rubs, if he were so silly as to draw them upon him, was Christian; but *cara patria*, as an arrangement of this world wholly, should have been defended, or he was her unworthy son. We have heard that the Scots have ever regarded Mr. Boswell in this light.

WILLIAM STEVENS (1732—1807), born in Southwark, was cousin of Dr. George Horne, bishop of Norwich. He was educated to the age of 14 only, with his relative, at the school of the Rev. Mr. Bye, of Maidstone, and then apprenticed to Mr. Hookham, a wholesale hosier, in Broad-street, London. In that house he lived ever after, made a fortune, and, at its head, died. To a considerable acquaintance with the Hebrew tongue, Mr. Stevens joined a philanthropic spirit; and he was ever inclined to aid in reclaiming the wicked, in relieving the indigent, and in encouraging undertakings from which society in general was to reap benefit. He did much in behalf of the depressed episcopal church of Scotland, as one of the small committee which had devoted itself to obtaining a parliamentary enactment for its restoration; and he had the happiness of numbering among his intimate friends nearly the whole bench of English bishops, together with many of the leading members of the bar. A large body of distinguished persons still bear testimony to the excellence of his character, by assembling more than once a year at the Freemason's Tavern, London, as 'Nobody's Club;' Mr. Stevens himself having assumed the modest appellation of *oudria*, and being the first to take the chair at the foundation-dinner in 1800. The life of this worthy man was written by the late

excellent Judge Park, in a style which forcibly reminds us, by the same air of verisimilitude and unaffected benevolence, of the biographies of Walton. Mr. Stevens died a bachelor, aged 75, 1807. The first members and founders of 'Nobody's Club' were fifteen, viz.—1. Wm. Stevens, esq.; 2. John Bowdler, esq., known as an author and benevolent man; 3. Richard Richards, esq., afterwards lord chief baron; 4. James Allan Park, esq., afterwards a judge of Common Pleas; 5. Rev. Jonathan Boucher, vicar of Epsom; 6. Rev. Wm. Horne, a kinsman of the founder; 7. Rev. Dr. Francis Randolph, rector of St. Paul's, Covent-garden; 8. Rev. John Prince, chaplain of the Magdalen and to the club; 9. John Gifford, esq., a London magistrate; 10. Rev. John Watson, since an archdeacon; 11. Joshua Watson, esq., a merchant, and brother of the preceding; 12. George Downing, esq.; 13. Rev. Henry Handley Norris, since a prebendary; 14. Thomas Richardson, esq., a barrister; 15. John Richardson, esq., afterwards a judge.

THOMAS REID, a clergyman of the Scottish kirk, was born and educated at Glasgow, and was presented by King's college, Aberdeen, with the living of New Machar. He is celebrated for his metaphysical work, 'An Inquiry into the Human Mind,' wherein he makes human knowledge to depend for its foundation on a system of instinctive principles, in opposition to Locke and other ontologists, who contend for a peculiar connexion between the powers and operations of the mind, and spurn the doctrine of innate ideas. Dr. Reid died, aged 87, 1796.

ELIZABETH MONTAGUE (1720—1800), daughter of Matthew Robinson, Esq., of the Rokeby family, had her studies directed by Dr. Conyers Middleton, and married, 1742, Mr. Montague, of the Sandwich family. She was soon left a widow, without family, and in possession of her late husband's good property; and having

a turn for study, she now wrote her 'Essay on the Genius of Shakspeare,' and opened her house in Portman-square to the 'blue-stocking club,' a book-society aiming at criticism, and so called because one of its members, Mr. Stillingfleet, always appeared in hose of that hue. Towards the close of her life, Mrs. Montague every year, on May-day, assembled the chimneysweeps of the metropolis in Portman-square, and gave them entertainment; in consequence, it is believed, of one of her relatives, who had fallen into the hands of a master sweep, after being stolen in infancy, having been tenderly treated. In memory of this, the sooty brotherhood, in and about London, annually on the same day observe a Saturnalia, abstaining from their abstergent, and, till of late, climbing labours a full week. Mrs. Montague died, aged 80, 1800.

JOHN PAUL JONES (1747—1792), born at Arbingland in Scotland, was son of a gardener, named Paul; but the son assumed that of Jones in subsequent life, for what reason is not known. At the age of 12 he was apprenticed to a merchant of Whitehaven, in the American trade; and his first voyage was to America, where his elder brother was established as a planter. He was next engaged for some time in the slave trade, but quitted it and returned to Scotland, 1768, in a vessel, the captain and mate of which died on the passage. Jones assumed the command, and brought the ship safe into port; and for this service he was made its captain and supercargo by the owners. He afterwards was master of other vessels, and had accumulated a fortune and settled in America when the revolt of the colonies from England began. Offering his services to the Americans, he was appointed to the *Alfred*, and, to use his own language, 'he had the honour to hoist with his own hands the flag of freedom, the first time it was displayed on the Delaware.' Soon after this he had the command of the Pro-

vidence, with twelve guns and seventy men; and cruising from the Bermudas to the Gut of Canso, he made sixteen prizes in little more than six weeks. In May, 1777, he was ordered to proceed to France, where the American commissioners, Franklin, Deane, and Lee, were directed to give him the command of a nobler ship, as a reward for his signal services; and after receiving from them the *Ranger*, the best American vessel at their command, he, with that single ship, kept the whole coast of Scotland, and part of that of England (then poorly protected), in a state of alarm. Making a descent at Whitehaven, he surprised and took two forts, with thirty pieces of cannon, and set fire to all the shipping in the harbour. During the attack, the house of the earl of Selkirk, near Whitehaven, in whose service Jones's father had lived as gardener, was plundered; and Jones returned to Brest with 200 prisoners of war, whose support involved him immediately in a variety of troubles. After many delays and vexations, he, in August, 1779, sailed with a squadron, to repeat his ravages on the English coast; and, when away from his convoy, in the *Bon Homme Richard*, he captured the British ship *Serapis*, after a bloody and desperate engagement. The *Serapis* was much superior in force to Jones's vessel, which latter sunk not long after the termination of the conflict. The sensation produced by this battle was unexampled, and raised the fame of Jones to its acme. His reception at Paris, whither Franklin instantly invited him, was of the most flattering kind. He was every where caressed; and the king of France presented him with a gold-hilted sword. In 1781 Jones arrived at Philadelphia; and by permission of the American Congress, which, in Washington's name, sent him a gold medal, he was permitted to remain on board the French fleet until the conclusion of peace, which put a period to his naval career in the service of the United

States. He afterwards accepted the invitation of Catherine of Russia to take command of her fleet; but he soon complained of neglect, and that the prince of Nassau and others were unjustly set above him, and he in consequence retired to Paris, on a pension, which was never paid by the Russians. There he died of jaundice and dropsy, induced by vexation, aged 45, 1792.

JAMES COOK (1728—1779), born at Marton in Cleveland, Yorkshire, was son of a poor cottager, and was engaged at the plough till the age of 13. At the age of 17 young Cook was bound apprentice to a grocer; but his fondness for the sea overturned his father's plans, and after one year and a half's service the indentures were cancelled, and in 1746 he was bound for three years to a ship owner at Whitby. He was thus engaged in the coasting and coal trade till 1752, when he was made mate of a vessel; and the next year he quitted his master's service, and entered on board the *Eagle*, a king's frigate. Between 1753 and 1760, when he received a lieutenant's commission, he was successfully employed in storing his mind with that knowledge of navigation and mathematics, which he afterwards displayed in so remarkable a degree. The skill and ability which he showed in America and on the Jamaica station, recommended him to the notice of sir William Burnaby the commander, and to the admiralty; and when in 1767 the royal society wished to observe the transit of Venus over the sun's disk, from some of the islands of the Pacific Ocean, Cook was appointed to command the ship *Endeavour* in that distant expedition. He was in consequence raised to the rank of captain, and sailed down the river, accompanied by sir Joseph Banks, Dr. Solander, and Mr. Green. On the 13th of April, 1769, he reached Otaheite, where the observations were to be made; and after remaining there till the 13th of July, he set sail for New Zealand,

and reached Batavia 10th of October, 1770. After losing many of his men in this climate, where he remained till the 27th of December to repair his ship, he proceeded to the Cape; and he anchored in the Downs on the 12th June, after an absence of nearly three years. The abilities displayed in this expedition recommended him to the command of the two ships intended to explore the coasts of the supposed southern hemisphere. On the 9th of April, 1772, he sailed on board the *Resolution* with Captain Furneaux, who had the command of the other ship, the *Adventure*. They reached the Cape 30th October, and leaving it on the 22d November, proceeded towards the south. The vast fields of ice which presented themselves in those southern latitudes, and the imminent dangers to which they hourly exposed the ships, convinced the captain (though, it has been since proved, in opposition to fact), that no land was to be found, and that further attempts were useless and perilous; and on the 17th of January 1773, he sailed towards the South Sea, and reached England on the 14th of July, 1774. During this dangerous voyage of three years and 18 days, the captain lost only one man out of a crew of 118. The discovery of islands in the southern seas had now engaged the attention of the nation; and another project was formed to find out a north-west passage, and thus unite the Great Pacific Ocean with the north of the Atlantic. On this occasion Cook, again eager to serve his country, bid adieu to his domestic comforts, and a third time embarked to circumnavigate the world. He set sail in the *Discovery*, in July, 1776, and penetrated towards the north-west of America; and he turned back only when his further progress was impeded by vast fields of floating ice. Unable, in consequence of the advanced season, to go further, he visited the Sandwich Islands, and stopped at Owyhee. During the night of his arrival in that island, the Indians carried away the *Discovery's*

cutter ; and Cook, determined to recover it, seized the king of the island, to confine him on board his ship till the restoration of the vessel. In the struggle which took place, the captain and his men were assailed by the Indians, who viewed with resentment the captivity of their monarch ; and before he could reach the boat, Cook received a severe blow on the head, which brought him to the ground. Unable alone to resist a multitude of savage foes, while his men in the boat and on the shore seemed intent in defending themselves, he was overpowered by his assailants, and slain. His body was treated with savage barbarity ; and only a few of his bones were recovered, which his disconsolate companions committed to the deep. This melancholy event happened 14th February, 1779, Cook being then in his 52d year. The account of the death of this worthy navigator was received with general sorrow. His services, the humanity which he had always shown in his intercourse with the Indians, and the benevolence with which he had watched over the health of his men, entitled him to universal respect. The king bestowed on his widow a pension of 200*l.* and on each of his children 25*l.* ; a reward scarcely adequate to the many services of their relative. Cook, though cradled in poverty, had vastly improved himself by diligence and assiduous labour. He possessed great natural abilities ; and reading, meditation, and severe application, rendered them not only respectable, but shining. Of his first voyage the account was compiled by Dr. Hawkesworth. Foster was the narrator of the second voyage ; and as he had shared the adventures of the naval hero, his relation must be considered as accurate as it is interesting. Among the compilers of the last voyage, men of ability and reputation are mentioned, especially Dr. Douglas, bishop of Salisbury, captain King, and Mr. Anderson.

JEAN DE LA PÉROUSE (1741—1788), born at Albi, distinguished him-

self by his services for 17 years in the Indian seas ; and in 1778 was employed in America under d'Estaing. He was present at the taking of Grenada ; and in 1782 he destroyed the English factories in Hudson's bay. At the peace he was selected by Louis XVI. to command the *Astrolabe* and the *Boussole*, on a voyage of discovery ; and the monarch himself traced out the places which he wished to be examined. After following the track of Cook, visiting the north-west of America, and advancing to Behring's straits, Pêrouse came down the eastern coast of Asia, along Japan, and, in February 1788, visited Botany bay. After leaving Botany bay, no intelligence whatever was received of him ; and it is imagined that he perished on some unknown shoals, or fell a sacrifice to the fury of the savages, in his 48th year. In 1791 the national assembly ordered two ships to go in pursuit of him ; but, after exploring those seas which he had visited, they returned without being able to satisfy the friends of humanity with respect to the fate of these unhappy adventurers. His voyages, as far as he sent a report of them to Europe, were published in four volumes 4*to*.

JAMES BRUCE (1730—1794), descended from the ancient race of Scottish kings, was born at Kinnaird, and educated at Harrow, and afterwards at Edinburgh. The indisposition of his wife induced him to travel to the south of France ; and, in consequence of her death, he prolonged his absence from home by visiting Portugal and Spain. On his return he accepted the consulship of Algiers, in 1768 ; and after learning the languages of Africa, he formed the project of exploring the most unknown parts of that continent. In 1768 he visited Aleppo, and entering Egypt, penetrated into Abyssinia ; where for nearly six years he remained examining the antiquities, the manners, and institutions of a people known to Europeans only by name. The history of this excursion was published in five volumes 4*to*, 1790 ;

but so marvellous did the circumstances related by the traveller appear, that few credited his narrative. An extended edition of the travels of Baron Munchausen came forth in ridicule of the work; and the most unkind things were said and written of the amiable author by an unfeeling public. Subsequent travellers in Abyssinia have authenticated nearly every assertion of Mr. Bruce. During his absence, his relations claimed his property, and would have divided the spoil, had not the traveller returned at the critical moment, in 1778. Soon after, to prevent a similar event, he married. He was unfortunately killed by a fall down his staircase at Kinnaird, 1794, in his 65th year. King George III. purchased his drawings for 2000*l.*, and paid for the engraving of the plates in his 'Travels.'

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN (1706 — 1790), born at Boston in America, was son of a tallow-chandler, who bound him apprentice to his own brother, a printer. Eager after knowledge, young Franklin read attentively at night the works which he had printed in the day; and from thus perusing a translation of Xenophon, he is said to have derived 'that energetic ardour, which at last raised him to fame and distinction.' A difference with his uncle removed him from New York to Philadelphia; where he was noticed by the governor Keith, and encouraged to set up business for himself. With this view he came to London, but soon discovered that the promises of his patron were the unmeaning professions of polished life; and after working as a journeyman printer, he, in 1726, returned to Philadelphia, commenced on his own account, and married. His 'Poor Richard's Almanac' appeared 1732, and so pleased the public by its valuable maxims of prudence and economy, that not less than 100,000 copies were sold in one year. The author was in 1736 made clerk to the general assembly of Pennsylvania; and in 1737 postmaster at Philadelphia. In 1752 he made the import-

ant discovery that electricity and lightning are identical; and showed the propriety of guarding buildings against the effects of storms by conductors. Distinguished thus as a philosopher, Franklin was equally so as a statesman; and on his appearance in England, 1787, as agent for Pennsylvania, he was received with respect by public men, and honoured with a seat in the Royal Society. In another visit to England, 1764, he was called to the bar of the commons, and examined with respect to the stamp act; and being, on his return home, elected a member of congress, his republican notions prompted him to become one of the foremost to urge a separation of the American provinces from the mother country. In the same spirit, he offered to conduct secret negotiations with France; and as the resources of the provinces were low, he embarked with a cargo of tobacco, which he sold at Nantes to defray his expenses. He was received with great distinction by the French, who admired the singularity of his dress, and the simplicity of his republican manners; the poets, and Voltaire more particularly, honoured him; and the government, by most unjustifiably signing a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance with him, declared war with England. When the independence of America was acknowledged 1782, Franklin, who had continued at Paris, signed the treaty of peace, 1783, and strengthened the interests of his rebellious country by alliances with Prussia and Sweden; and on his arrival in America, 1785, he was made governor of Pennsylvania, then in a most distracted state, and was thus furnished with labour for the remainder of his life, which terminated at the age of 84, 1790. Franklin has the praise of being the architect of his own fortune. The revolutionary French were enamoured of his character, and Turgot was regarded as eclipsing Virgil when he wrote under a picture of him, '*Eripuit cælo fulmen, sceptrumque tyrannis.*'

On the first account, the American's perseverance certainly merits our admiration; but from what tyrants he plucked the sceptre, we are at a loss to guess. Like all self-educated men, Franklin was a sceptic, or at best what may be called indifferently Socinian or Deist.

DIONYSE DIDEROT (1713—1784) was born at Langres, and after receiving his education among the Jesuits, settled in Paris as an author. His '*Pensées Philosophiques*' made him known, 1746; but his celebrity chiefly arises from the '*Dictionnaire Encyclopédique*,' a gigantic work, planned by himself, and completed by him, with the assistance of D'Alembert, and other men of genius, after a labour of 20 years, 1767. As the religious portion of the *Encyclopédie* was rife with the most dangerous sceptical opinions, the government imprisoned the printers in the Bastille; and although the whole edition eventually sold, Diderot found the gain so little, that he was compelled to dispose of his own valuable library, which the empress of Russia generously purchased for 50,000 livres. The philosopher employed his remaining years in writing on various subjects—moral, immoral, and political; and for his sceptical notions in his '*Letters on the Blind*,' 1749, he was imprisoned six months at Vincennes. In private life Diderot was amiable, and he consequently made many friends; but it is to be lamented that his abilities were so frequently exerted to destroy the very basis of that society he seems to have been so calculated to adorn. He died suddenly, on rising from the dinner-table, aged 71, 1784. As what is called '*The French Philosophy*' owes its origin to, or at least has found its throne in, the *Encyclopédie*, it is pleasing to reflect how rapidly the infidel fabric it constructed has shrivelled into the smallest of fractions, and is about to vanish into nonentity. The history and thoughts of the '*Juifs misérables*,' so grossly attacked by

the Encyclopedists, the barbaric war-song of a Barak and Deborah, the rapt prophetic utterance of an unkempt Isaiah—still exist, and are still treasured: three thousand years at least have they endured—while the thrice resplendent *Encyclopédie* is sinking unpitied to oblivion in three score! *Those* were tones caught from the sacred melody of the All, and have harmony and meaning for ever; *these* are but the discords of darkness, and their jangling dies away with nothing more of harmony to remember than the clashing sound of their departing cymbals. In a word, all epochs wherein Belief prevails, under what form it may, are splendid, heart-elevating, fruitful for contemporaries and posterity: all epochs, on the contrary, wherein Unbelief, under what form soever, maintains its sorry victory, should they even for a moment glitter with a sham splendour, vanish from the eyes of the earliest posterity, because no one chooses to burden himself with the study of the unfruitful—no one desires to follow a torch, which is to become extinct at the instant it has brought the wayfarer within the precincts of impetrable darkness.

WILLIAM HEBERDEN (1710—1801), born in London, completed his education at St. John's college, Cambridge, of which he became a fellow. In 1739 he took the degree of M.D., and commenced practice as a physician at Cambridge, giving at the same time courses of lectures on the *Materia Medica* to the university students. In 1748 he removed to London, and, as one of the college of Physicians, and a member of the Royal Society, was concerned in the publication of several periodical works connected with medicine and general science; a course which has seldom been productive of *patients* to the metropolitan practitioner. Dr. Heberden's only distinct work is '*Medical Commentaries on the History and Cure of Diseases*,' a posthumous publication in Latin and

English. He died at Windsor, aged 91, 1801.

JOHN FOTHERGILL, of a Quaker family, born 1712, at Carr-end Yorkshire, was educated at Sedburgh school, Yorkshire, and in 1718 bound to an apothecary at Bradford. He studied under Wilmot at St. Thomas's hospital, and then went to Edinburgh. He afterwards visited Leyden, France, and Germany, and in 1740 settled in London. He was a licentiate of the college of Physicians, London, and fellow of Edinburgh, and of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies. He rose in fame and practice; so that his profession brought him little less than 7000*l.* per annum, and enabled him to accumulate a property of 80,000*l.* He died 1780, aged 68. He devoted much of his time to natural history, formed a botanical garden at Upton, in Essex, and liberally endowed a seminary of young Quakers at Acworth, near Leeds, for the education and clothing of above 300 children. He published some tracts, the best of which is 'On the Ulcerous Sore Throat,' and was a great patron of learned men. He assisted Sydney Parkinson in his account of his 'South Sea Voyage;' at the expense of 2000*l.* printed a translation of the Bible from the Hebrew and Greek original, by Anthony Purver, the Quaker; and published Percy's Key to the New Testament, for the use of his seminary.

WILLIAM CULLEN was born in Lanarkshire, served his time with an apothecary at Glasgow, and then went as surgeon in a vessel to the West Indies. On his return, he settled at Shotts, and afterwards at Hamilton. By the advice of the duke of Hamilton, he removed to Glasgow, and obtained an appointment in the university. About this time he formed a partnership with William Hunter. In 1746 he was appointed lecturer in chemistry at Glasgow, and in 1751 was nominated king's professor of medicine. In 1756 he was invited to fill the vacant

seat of chemistry at Edinburgh; and he displayed such knowledge, that an opposition was raised against him by those who envied his fame, and could not rival his abilities. He published the lectures which he delivered, in consequence of the appearance of a surreptitious copy. He at last resigned his office to Dr. Black, in consequence of growing infirmities, though he afterwards joined Dr. Gregory, to give lectures on the practice of physic. He died 1790, aged 78. His other works were, 'Lines of Physic,' 'Synopsis Nosologiæ Methodicæ,' and a 'Treatise on the Recovery of Drowned Persons.'

JOHN HUNTER, younger brother of Dr. William Hunter, was born at Long Calderwood, 1728. When 10 years old, he lost his father; and this so retarded his advancement in knowledge, that he was 20 years old before he became sensible of the propriety of applying himself to a profession. The reputation of his brother excited him to surgical pursuits, and he joined him in London, 1748. After becoming a pupil at St. Bartholomew's, and visiting Scotland, he entered at St. Mary hall, Oxford, but without losing sight of his medical studies. In 1756 he was appointed house-surgeon to St. George's hospital, and was admitted by his brother as an assistant in his lectures. He now devoted himself to anatomical studies for 10 long years; and was thus enabled not only to understand, but to improve the art of comparative anatomy. The ramification of the olfactory nerves in the nose, the arteries of the gravid uterus, and the lymphatic vessels of birds, were, among other important subjects, satisfactorily described. The excessive attention which he bestowed on his anatomical studies had such an effect on his health, that to re-establish it he went abroad, and was surgeon on the staff with the army at Belleisle. In 1767 he was elected fellow of the Royal Society, and the next year he went to reside in Jermyn-street, in

the house which his brother had quitted for Windmill-street. In 1776 he was appointed surgeon-extraordinary to the king; and in 1783 he removed to Leicester-square, where he had prepared a house for the reception of his valuable museum. Besides the appointment of surgeon to St. George's hospital, he was in 1786 deputy surgeon-general to the army, and in 1790 he succeeded Mr. Adair as inspector-general of hospitals, and as surgeon-general to the army; in which year he resigned to his brother-in-law, Everard Home, his surgical lectures, which he found too laborious and inconvenient for his extensive practice. He was unfortunately subject to strong spasmodic affections of the heart since 1786; and as irritation generally produced those symptoms, he unfortunately met, in his visit to St. George's hospital, 16th October, 1793, some vexatious circumstances. Eager to check the feelings of his mind, he walked into another room; and while turning round to speak to a physician, he fell down, and expired instantly, without a groan. He was in his 66th year. As an able experimentalist, John Hunter will long be remembered with respect and gratitude: the dexterity of his operations was equalled only by his patience and perseverance. His chief works are, 'A Treatise on the Human Teeth,' and another 'On the Blood, Inflammation, and Gun-shot Wounds.' His collection of comparative anatomy, arranged in a clear order to exhibit the corresponding parts of animals, was most valuable.

JOSEPH BLACK, eminent as a physician and chemist, succeeded Dr. Cullen as chemical professor at Edinburgh, 1765. To him science is indebted for a discovery of the nature of fixed air, and of the causes of the causticity of alkaline substances. He originated the doctrine of latent heat, on which depend the causes of fluidity and evaporation; and proved bodies to be expanded by heat, whereon rests the principle of the

thermometer. Dr. Black also showed that the boiling of water disposed it to freeze more readily; and that flint was held in solution in the hot springs of Iceland. The death of this great man, who was a bachelor, was sudden, and occurred in his 72d year, 1799. A servant, on entering his sitting-room, found him a corpse, though sitting in a chair, with a cup of milk-and-water resting on his knee, and held so steadily, that not a drop of the liquid had been spilled.

WILLIAM BUCHAN was a Scottish physician, who settled in London, and became well known for his 'Domestic Medicine,' the parent of many similar books. His work met with much opposition from medical practitioners, but has still maintained its ground, and is likely so to do while people delight in being their own doctors, a practice at which the faculty need not repine. 'Let all men,' said an eminent lawyer, 'make their own wills, and there will be a plentiful legacy for the courts.' Medical men themselves, when ill, give up the helm, and call in a brother physician to prescribe for them: how much more need then have they of another physician for themselves *than* themselves, who have no scientific knowledge of medicine, and who are nearly ignorant of the structure of the human frame? It must be owned, to our regret, that the existing acquaintance with diseases is not sufficient to put to silence the pretensions of quackery, or perhaps to warrant the claim of even the regular profession on the *unlimited* confidence of mankind. As respects the nervous system, for instance, next to nothing is ascertained: cause and effect are constantly confounded in treating its cases of disturbance. Hence Browns, and Buchans, and Dicksons will at all times be regarded for a time as veritable reformers; till even *their* 'fallacies' are discovered, and the old plans of treatment, with all their defects, are again in vogue. Dr. Buchan died 1805, aged 86.

SIR WILLIAM BROWNE, a physician,

who practised with success at Lynn in Norfolk, and settled in London, where he died, 1774, aged 82. He left three prize medals to Cambridge University, for the rising poets of alma mater. He wrote many ingenious pieces in prose and verse, in Latin and in English, besides a translation of Gregory's Elements of Catoptrics and Dioptrics. He was a man of genuine wit, was eccentric, but had a great command of temper; and when Foote introduced him, in consequence of a dispute with the college of physicians, in his 'Devil upon two Sticks,' and caricatured him as a tall figure, with his wig and identical coat, the physician, disdaining to resent the affront, sent the actor his card, to compliment him on his happy representation, accompanying it with his muff, which he said had been omitted in the play. The medals alluded to are of gold, value five guineas each: they are given annually to three undergraduates, first, for a Greek ode, after Sappho; secondly, for a Latin ode, in imitation of Horace; and lastly, for the best Greek and Latin epigrams. He also founded a scholarship at Peterhouse, having himself completed his education at that college.

JOHN PRINGLE commenced his career as a surgeon in the army, and was at the battle of Culloden. Entering into practice in London as a physician, he was highly successful; and the publication of his work on the 'Diseases of the Army,' eventually led to the appointment of queen's physician and a baronetcy. For his advancement of natural philosophy, he was elected president of the Royal Society. He died 1782, aged 75.

ALBERT VON HALLER, a Swiss, after visiting England, became professor of anatomy in the newly-founded university of Göttingen, and was made a baron. His 'First Lines of Physiology' has only lately been superseded as a text-book in schools of medicine, by the discoveries of the present day. Haller's German poems display depth of thought, and richness of imagina-

tion: and that he was a truly religious man, his excellent letters to his daughter on the truths of the Christian religion amply show. He died 1777, aged 69.

JOHANN ZIMMERMANN, a Swiss, who became physician royal at Hanover, was some time at the court of Frederick the Great, and attended that monarch in his last illness. He was a martyr to hypochondriasis, which was augmented by the insanity of his son, and the early death of a beloved daughter. On the approach of the French towards Hanover, in 1794, he almost lost his reason; and anticipating the pillage of his house, and the ruin of his fortune, he wasted to a skeleton, and died, aged 60. Of his work on Solitude, it is enough to say that the author was unable to put his own maxims in force; his melancholy continually driving him, not only out of retirement, but from one noisy city to another, as if mocking his philosophical speculations.

EMANUEL KANT, son of a saddler of Königsberg, in Germany, having published in 1781 'The Critique of Pure Reason,' became the founder of what has been since called 'The Critical Philosophy;' and he lived to see his theory supplant every other metaphysical system in the German universities. Kant divides all knowledge into that which is *a priori* and that which is *a posteriori*. The former is conferred upon us by our nature; and our ideas *a priori*, he says, are produced *with* experience, but not *by* it, and exist in the mind, of which they are forms. They are distinguished from other ideas by appearing universal and necessary; and their converse is impossible. Ideas *a posteriori*, which we derive from experience, he asserts have no such characters. What we have seen, or felt, or heard, we may see, or feel, or hear again; but we do not perceive any possibility in its being otherwise. 'For instance,' he continues, 'a house is on fire in my view: I am certain of the fact: but it affords me no general or necessary knowledge.

It is altogether *à posteriori* : the materials are furnished by the individual impression I have received, and that impression might have been very different. But if I take two small balls, and learn to call twice two four, I shall be immediately convinced that any two bodies whatever, when added to any two other bodies, will constantly make the sum of bodies four. Experience has indeed afforded me the opportunity of acquiring this knowledge; but it has not given it to me; for how could experience prove to me that this truth should never vary? Experience must always be limited; and therefore cannot teach us that which is necessary and universal.' Kant then goes on to define what he calls the forms of the understanding, using the most absurd titles, such as the paralogism of pure reason, the ideal transcendental, and so forth; and we need only observe that his theory contains little in it that is new beyond classification, in which respect it is entitled to some praise. Kant died in 1804, aged 80.

RICHARD ARKWRIGHT (1732—1792), born of humble parents at Preston, Lancashire, commenced life as a barber, and displayed something like talent in his occupation by dyeing hair; a species of genius for which he received all due honour, in an age when every body preferred the capital appendage of a stranger to his own natural locks. Something, probably connected with his ambulatory occupation, induced him to give up wig-making for the search after 'perpetual motion.' The people of his neighbourhood were all engaged in spinning; especially in imitating those cotton-manufactures of India, which, coming from Calicut, were known by the name of *calico*. The demand for the English representative had become so great, that the manufacturers were placed in continual difficulties by the scanty supply of materials. Linen and cotton mixed composed the article so much in demand; but it was found impos-

sible to spin the fibres of cotton into a thread sufficiently strong to be used as a warp. Cotton was therefore only employed for the weft, and linen for the warp; and the raw cotton and the linen yarn were always given by the master-manufacturers to the cottagers of the villages, who both carded and spun the cotton-wool, and wove the cloth. The one-thread wheel was the only machine employed; and it was no uncommon thing for a weaver to walk four miles in a morning, before he could collect from the spinners weft enough to serve him for the remainder of the day. All this was observed by Arkwright. Aerial and unimportant indeed was the 'perpetual motion' after which he had so long languished, in comparison of that dynamic principle which, when judiciously brought into play, would set off and keep in motion 10,000 spinning-wheels, and prove a perfect wheel of fortune to the discoverer. He sat down, and after a while found himself so competent to aid the impatient cotton-masters, that Mr. Smalley, of Preston, and ultimately Mr. Need, of Nottingham, afforded him pecuniary means to build a mill, and begin his experiments. Arkwright, having no original mechanical skill, had constructed the model of a machine, which Mr. Strutt, Need's partner, rendered perfect: he saw the merit of the work at a glance, but the wheels were not properly adapted to each other, and no labour of the inventor could remedy the defect. A patent was obtained, 1769, for the machine made after the improved model; and the 'spinning-frame,' as it was called, of Mr. Arkwright, which effected the work by two pair of rollers turned by machinery, very shortly superseded the common wheel. But much hostility began to be displayed in various quarters against the frame; and especially by one Hargrave, a carpenter of Blackburn, who had lately invented the spinning-jenny, which, with no more labour nor time than had previously been re-

quired to form a single thread, spun thirty. Arkwright, however, quietly watched his opportunity, and at length gained a sufficient knowledge of the powers of the jenny, to excel in every way its method of carding and roving, which he produced by machinery, and obtained a second patent. Colonel Mordaunt, however, and others obtained the cancelling of this and the former grant of privilege, on the ground that Arkwright was not the inventor; nevertheless the tide of fortune had set in, and for many subsequent years the market-prices of cotton-twist were fixed by the enterprising patentee. It is almost needless to say that the claim of Arkwright to the invention is now admitted; and that the frame, when put in motion, performs the whole process of spinning, leaving only to man the office of supplying the material, and of joining the thread when it happens to break. Such became the wealth of the projector, that he actually built out of his own pocket the better part of the town of Cromford, where his works were situated, and erected for a place of residence the splendid stone pile of Willersley Castle, now possessed by his son, (supposed to be the wealthiest person in the United Kingdom, as the owner of five millions of property), situated on the commanding eminence that forms the eastern boundary of the Derwent in its course through Matlock Dale. As high sheriff of Derbyshire, 1786, Arkwright presented an address of congratulation to the king on his escaping the attempt of Margaret Nicholson to assassinate him, and was knighted; and sir Richard, the son of lowly parents, went to his grave lamented and respected, 1792, in his 60th year, leaving a fortune of half a million. Since sir Richard's death, the advantage of his invention to the country has been fully shown. Between 1820 and 1836 the exports to foreign countries of cotton yarn increased from 23 to 105 millions of pounds; and warps are now sent abroad, sized and dress-

ed, ready to be put into the loom, thus affording every facility for the most unskilful workman to weave them into piece.

MATTHEW BOULTON (1728—1809), born at Birmingham, engaged in business as a maker of hardware, and invented and brought to great perfection inlaid steel buckles, watch chains, &c; of which large quantities were exported to France, whence they were re-purchased by the English with avidity, as supposed specimens of French ingenuity. In 1762, having greatly enlarged his business, Mr. Boulton purchased a lease of the Soho, two miles from Birmingham, in the county of Stafford; and what had hitherto been a barren leath, was gradually converted into an extensive manufactory and school of the mechanic arts, where ingenious men were liberally encouraged by the proprietor to display their talents. The introduction of the steam-engine at Soho brought on a friendship, and soon after a partnership, with Mr. Watt, of Glasgow, 1769; and the pair speedily rose to eminence and wealth by attempting an improved coinage, which king George III. especially patronized. A method of copying oil paintings, so as actually to deceive connoisseurs, and other curious undertakings, subsequently made all Europe acquainted with the abilities of Mr. Boulton; who died highly respected, aged 81, 1809.

WILLIAM WARBURTON (1698—1779), born at Newark, Notts, was taken from Okeham school into the office of his father, an attorney of Newark. The business however was by no means a flourishing one, and young Warburton therefore read for orders, 1723; and soon after he had been ordained, he was presented to the living of Burnt Broughton by sir Robert Sutton, to whom he had dedicated a work on Miracles, 1727. Sir Robert also obtained a place for his name in the list of the king's masters of arts, on his majesty's visit to Cambridge, 1728; and he thus supplied the want of an academical

education, At Broughton he remained several years, during which he published, 'The Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated, on the Principles of a Religious Deist, from the omission of the Doctrine of a Future State of Rewards and Punishments in the Jewish Dispensation, 1788.' So bold and paradoxical a production met with adversaries among all parties; but, undismayed by animadversion, he published a 'Vindication' of his opinions, and persevered in the prosecution of his work, which, whatever may be thought of the leading principle, will ever remain a monument of genius and learning scarcely to be paralleled among the theological productions of any age or nation. Warburton now became acquainted with Pope the poet, who, having introduced him to Mr. Allen of Prior-park, near Bath, he eventually married that gentleman's niece, and became possessed of the estate in her right. From being preacher at Lincoln's-inn, 1746, Warburton rose from stall to deanry, until in 1759 he was made bishop of Gloucester. In 1762 came forth his 'Doctrine of Grace,' in which he severely handles the methodists; and in 1768 he established a lecture at Lincoln's-inn, on the evidence in favour of Christianity from the prophecies. In 1769 he was grievously afflicted by the decease of his only son of consumption, at the age of 19; and he himself died, aged 81, 1779. The great talents of Warburton were shorn of their lustre by his haughty and dogmatical tone in controversy; and however sound his argument, good his cause, and perspicuous his style, he is always the coarse and thundering, the brow-beating and exasperating disputant; by which he made all who ventured a tilt with him, his bitter personal foes.

ZACHARY PEARCE (1690—1774) was son of a London distiller, and educated at Westminster, and Trinity college, Cambridge. Judge Parker obtained him the living of St. Martin-in-the-Fields, London; and

in 1739 he was made dean of Winchester. In 1748, though raised to the see of Bangor, his 'Nolo episcopari' was conscientious, as his wishes pointed entirely to a life of retirement; and though translated to Rochester, with the deanry of Westminster annexed, 1756, his anxiety to retire was so sincere, that the government yielded to his repeated request, and allowed him to resign the more valuable appointment, the deanry, in favour of Dr. Thomas—retaining the bishopric, to a relinquishment of which on the part of a prelate there exist potent objections of an ecclesiastical nature. This worthy divine and father, who gave 5000*l.* to the college for clergymen's widows at Bromley, and was as much distinguished for learning as munificence, died, aged 84, 1774. His chief work, besides controversial ones, is a 'Commentary on the Gospels and Acts.'

JOHN DOUGLAS (1721—1807), born at Pittenween, Fifeshire, was grandson of a clergyman of the episcopal church of Scotland, who had been deprived of his living at the Revolution, and son of a London innkeeper. From Dunbar school he went to St. Mary hall, Oxford, whence he removed to Baliol college. Having taken orders, he was appointed chaplain in the Foot-guards; and in that capacity he was present at the battle of Fontenoy, 1745. He was afterwards recommended to the earl of Bath as a travelling tutor to his son, lord Pulteney, with whom he visited several parts of the continent; but he quitted him, and returned to England, 1749, when his patron gave him the living of High Ercal, Salop. He now commenced author, and published, amongst other works, 'The Criterion, or a Discourse on Miracles,' designed as a defence of Christianity against the attacks of sceptical writers, and especially of Hume; and he was made successively a royal chaplain, canon of Windsor, canon of St. Paul's, and dean of Windsor, the last in 1762. It was

at this period that Dr. Douglas was connected with many of the literary characters of London; Goldsmith, in his 'Retaliation,' shows him to have been a member of the beef-steak club; and he also belonged to that club of which Johnson was the soul. During the disgraceful Gordon riots of 1780, he contributed to check the fury of the misguided rabble, by procuring a detachment of the guards to be posted in St. Paul's church-yard; and on the last day of their services, he entertained the whole party at his table with great hospitality. On the death of Dr. Law, 1787, he was made bishop of Carlisle; in 1792 succeeded Dr. Barrington as bishop of Salisbury; and died aged 86, 1807.

THOMAS PERCY (1728—1811), a descendant of the ancient earls of Northumberland, was born at Bridgenorth, Salop; and after graduating at Christ-church, Oxford, was made chaplain to the king; in 1778 dean of Carlisle; and in 1782 bishop of Dromore. Devoting all his leisure to literary pursuits, he wrote a great deal; but his most popular work is 'Reliques of Antient English Poetry.' He was well skilled in the Icelandic and several of the Oriental languages, especially the Chinese, from which he made some translations; and he also published a curious domestic record, long extant in the Percy family, 'The Northumberland Household Book,' a document valuable for the light it throws on the manners and habits of our ancestors. He died at Dromore, aged 83, 1811.

ROBERT LOWTH (1710—1787), son of a divine, was educated at Winchester and New college, Oxford, and became a fellow of his college, and professor of poetry in the university. His first living was Ovington, Hants; and in 1748 he accompanied Mr. Legge, afterwards chancellor of the exchequer, to Berlin, and then attended the sons of the duke of Devonshire as tutor, during their travels on the continent. On his return he was appointed archdeacon of Winchester by Bishop Hoadly; publish-

ed, as professor of poetry, his admirable 'De Sacra Poesi Hebræorum Prælectiones;' and in 1755 was made bishop of Limerick. That see, under some peculiar circumstances, he was allowed to vacate for a prebend of Durham, and the rectory of Sedgfield. His leisure hours were now devoted to authorship; and in 1756 he had a long controversy with the violent Warburton, who accused him of attacking his 'Divine Legation' in the 'Prælectiones,' closing the contest with a letter to his intemperate antagonist, which has become memorable at once for the ability and severity of its criticism. In 1766 he was made bishop of St. David's, translated the same year to Oxford, and in 1777 to London, but declined the proffered see of Canterbury on the death of archbishop Cornwallis, in consequence of his family afflictions. In 1768 he had lost his eldest daughter; in 1788 his second daughter suddenly expired while presiding at the tea table; and his son was, without warning, cut off also in the prime of life. This excellent prelate died aged 77, 1787; and his best known works are his excellent English Grammar, Prælectiones, Sermons, and new translation of Isaiah.

GEORGE HORNE (1730—1792), son of the rector of Otham, Kent, was born there, and until the age of 13 was educated by his father; who had been so foolishly careful of him from infancy, that he would not suffer him to be hastily awoke from his nightly sleep—but used a flute, which he blew first gently, and then gradually increased in tone. From Maidstone school young Horne passed to University college, Oxford; but removed to Magdalen, on being elected Kentish fellow there. He applied closely to Hebrew, and to the study of the Fathers: and, after a perusal of Hutcheson's attack upon the Newtonian philosophy, he became a convert to that writer's mystical notions. After taking orders 1753, he remained at Magdalen until elected its president 1768; when he married. He had all

along been engaged in polemical disputes with the opposers of Hutchinsonianism; but he, in 1776, convinced the world that all his leisure was not thus misemployed, by publishing his 'Commentary on the Psalms,' a work which will ever be duly estimated by the devout Christian, and remain a beautiful memorial of the author's holy character. In 1781 Dr. Horne was made dean of Canterbury by the interest of his friend, lord Hawkesbury, and in 1790 advanced to the see of Norwich, a dignity which he only held two years, dying at Bath, aged 62, 1792. So highly was Bishop Horne's character estimated even by Wesley, that he said once to a clergyman, as both were standing at the window of a country inn to see the prelate quit it, 'There goes a man, who, had he lived in the first age of Christianity, would have been an apostle.'

THOMAS NEWTON (1703—1782), born at Lichfield, was educated at Westminster, and Trinity college, Cambridge, of which latter he became a fellow, and obtained the rectory of St. Mary-le-Bow, London. For his 'Dissertations on the Prophecies which have been remarkably fulfilled, and are at this time fulfilling in the World,' 1761, he was raised to the see of Bristol; which, with the deanry of St. Paul's, he held till his decease, aged 79, 1782.

RICHARD WATSON (1737—1816), born at Heversham, Westmoreland, became a sizar of Trinity college, Cambridge; where he was distinguished for his intense application to study, and for the singularity of his dress, which consisted of a coarse mottled Westmoreland coat, and blue yarn stockings. Obtaining a fellowship and holy orders, he devoted his attention to physics, and was chosen professor of chemistry 1764; but he was more appropriately engaged 1771 as regius professor of divinity, though his opinions were soon found latitudinarian, and of the low church. A sermon which he preached before the university on the anniver-

sary of the Revolution, rife with his peculiar politics, excited as much opposition as Hoadly's discourse on the kingdom of Christ had formerly done; and although necessarily regarded as holding republican notions, he, through the duke of Rutland's interest, obtained the see of Llandaff after Barrington, 1782. His defence in the house of lords of the prince of Wales's right to the regency, during the illness of his father George III. 1788, left him, on the unexpected recovery of the king, no hope of further promotion than this poorest of the bishoprics. In 1796, he wrote his 'Apology for the Bible' against Paine's infamous 'Age of Reason;' and it is but doing justice to this talented prelate to say that, before his death, when he saw by the issue of the French revolution the certainty of radical designs, when fully carried out, terminating in anarchy, he abated greatly of his liberal fervour. The latter part of his life was chiefly spent in retirement at Calgarth-park, a seat delightfully situated near the lakes of his native country; where he amused himself with making extensive plantations of timber-trees, and with the society of many excellent persons, and where he died, aged 79, 1816.

RICHARD HURD (1720—1808) was son of a farmer, and born at Congreve, Staffordshire. Being delicate as a youth, and devoted to books, his father placed him at a grammar-school, and, by the aid of a relation, sent him to Emanuel college, Cambridge; where he obtained a fellowship, and acquired notice by commenting on Horace, and writing in defence of Warburton. In 1757, he was made rector of Thracaston, and published his 'Dialogues, Moral and Political;' which from their liberal turn found him more admirers among the low than the high-church party. In 1766, he was chosen preacher of Lincoln's-inn, in 1767 made archdeacon of Gloucester, in 1775 raised to the see of Lichfield and Coventry, and soon after made preceptor to the

prince of Wales and duke of York. He was, in 1781, translated to Worcester, refused the archbishopric of Canterbury, and died, aged 83, 1808. The following letter from king George III. will show how attached that monarch was to the prelate. It was written when the invasion by Buonaparte was expected. 'My dear good bishop; it has been thought by some of my friends, that it will be necessary for me to remove my family. Should I be under so painful a necessity, I know not where I could place them with so much satisfaction to myself, and, under Providence, with so much security, as with yourself and my friends at Worcester. It does not appear to me probable that there will be any occasion for it; for I do not think that the unhappy man who threatens us, will dare to venture himself among us; neither do I wish you to make any preparation for us; but I thought it right to give you this intimation. I remain, my dear good bishop, GEORGE.'

BELBY PORTEUS (1731—1808), born at York, went from Ripon grammar-school to Christ's college, Cambridge, as a sizar, and became a fellow. He obtained the Seatonian prize, for his poem on 'Death,' 1759; and in 1762, Secker, archbishop of Canterbury, made him his chaplain, and afterwards gave him the living of Hunton, Kent, a stall, and the valuable rectory of Lambeth. In 1776, Dr. Porteus was made bishop of Chester, at the express desire of queen Charlotte; and in 1787 he was translated to London, over which diocese he presided until his death, at the age of 77, 1808. Bishop Porteus was a man of considerable learning, and of an extremely amiable private character. He inherited from his patron, archbishop Secker, perhaps with the fortune he received from him, a taste for advancing converts to church opinions, often in preference to the born sons of the establishment; and he was therefore more commonly the friend of low than high

churchmen, having his decided intimacies almost wholly amongst the self-styled evangelical party. Mrs. Hannah More's religious novel of 'Cœlebs' is believed to have been mainly his composition.

RICHARD BURN, born at Kirkby Stephen, Westmoreland, proceeded to the degree of doctor of laws at Queen's college, Oxford; and having taken holy orders, obtained the vicarage of Orton, Westmoreland. Here he employed his leisure in digesting a system of English law for the use of magistrates, which has gone through several editions, and is still considered the most useful work of the kind. It is generally known by the title of 'Burn's Justice'; and he subsequently published as a sequel a similar book on ecclesiastical law, which has been equally popular. He died at Orton, having held the living 49 years, 1789.

BENJAMIN KENNICOTT (1718—1783), born at Totness, Devon, completed his education at Exeter college, Oxford, where his very studious habits obtained him the degree of B.A. gratuitously, and before the statuteable term. His excellent sermons next recommended him to public notice; but about 1753, he began to digest the plan of his national labour, the publication of the Hebrew text of the Bible, collated from various MSS. In this undertaking, too expensive for a private man, he was nobly supported by the munificence of learned bodies, and even of sovereign princes; and to accelerate his labours, he was made canon of Christ-church, and keeper of the Radcliffe library. After the most laudable perseverance, he completed the work. In 1776 the first volume was published, and the eighth and last, 1780. Dr. Kennicott died at Culham, Oxfordshire, his living, aged 65, 1783.

JOHN NEWTON (1725—1807), born in London, obtained orders in his fortieth year from the bishop of Lincoln, after a youth passed at sea in

the prosecution of the slave trade. Lord Dartmouth gained for him the curacy of Olney, 1764, where, in a fifteen years' residence, he formed his celebrated friendship with the poet Cowper; and he ultimately obtained the living of St. Mary Woolnoth, London. His chief work is 'Cardiphonia, or the Utterance of the Heart,' an extraordinary production, considering the defective education of the author, and the poor preparation for the ministry that a slave trader's occupation could be supposed to afford. The work bears undoubted evidence of a master-mind; but it is tinged throughout with the peculiar tenets of Hyper-Calvinism, and of the low church, and contains many passages exceptionable in every point of view. Mr. Newton died, aged 82, 1807.

WILLIAM DODD (1729—1777) was born at Bourne, Lincolnshire, of which parish his father was vicar, and completed his education at Clare-hall, Cambridge. He took holy orders, 1758, having already married, and soon became celebrated in London as a pulpit-orator—a species of notoriety which has too often proved the ruin of men similarly circumstanced, however nurtured in piety, and supported by the rational hope of success in their career. Mr. Dodd obtained several lectureships successively, and published various sermons, and devotional pieces, which met with a very favourable reception. Rendered vain by the attention paid him, which very much resembled that excited by a favourite actor, although his income was handsome, his expenses far exceeded it; and the very considerable sums he received as author and editor, proved altogether inadequate to a style of living which an opulent private fortune could alone have supported. In the midst of this thoughtless part of his course, Mr. Dodd took an active part in furthering the designs of the founders of the Magdalen Charity (then just instituted, 1758, in Prescot-street, Goodman's-fields, London), preach-

ing gratuitously to the crowded congregations of its chapel, at that moment a most fashionable place of Sunday resort, and visiting and instructing its penitents. His services at length became such, that, as the funds of the charity improved, he agreed to receive a handsome annual stipend therefrom; and in 1762 Dr. Squires, bishop of St. David's, who had previously made him his chaplain, collated him to a prebend of Brecon. By the friendship of the same prelate, the celebrated earl of Chesterfield appointed him tutor to his godson and heir; in 1765 he was made one of the king's chaplains; and in 1776 he took the degree of LL.D. In the year 1772 he commenced a subscription, which gave rise to the truly benevolent Society for the Relief of Persons confined for Small Debts; and about the same time he was presented to the rectory of Hockliffe, Buckinghamshire. His extravagance, however, was such, that he was involved in debts which he could not discharge; and in 1774 he had recourse to a miserable expedient to procure the rich living of St. George's, Hanover-square, by means of an anonymous application to the Lord Chancellor's lady, to whom an offer of 3000*l.* was made for her interest to procure the living. The letter being traced to its author, he was ignominiously struck out of the list of royal chaplains; and, together with Mrs. Dodd, being almost openly ridiculed by Foote, in his farce of the Cozeners, he deemed it prudent to retire to Geneva, where his pupil (become earl of Chesterfield) then was, who received him with unmerited kindness, and, as a means of relief, procured for him the living of Winge in Buckinghamshire, with a dispensation to hold it with his other preferment. His embarrassments, however, continued as great as ever; and at length they tempted him, in 1777, to the forgery of Lord Chesterfield's name to a bond, by which he obtained a large sum of money. He flattered himself with the power

of withdrawing it in time to prevent discovery, but detection almost immediately followed. Being brought to trial, he was capitally convicted on the 24th of February, 1777; and notwithstanding the most strenuous efforts to procure a mitigation of his sentence, he was executed on the 27th of June in the same year, at the age of 48. He died with every due mark of compunction for his errors and vices, and with expressions of the most bitter remorse for the scandal which his conduct had brought on his profession, and the wound it had occasioned to the Church. His chief original works, besides sermons, were 'Reflections on Death,' 'An Account of the Magdalen Charity,' and 'Prison Thoughts,' in which latter (composed after his crime) he was assisted by Dr. Johnson.

CHRISTIAN FREDERICK SCHWARTZ (1727—1798), born at Sonnenburg, in Prussia, of respectable parents in humble life, was ordained 1749 by a Danish bishop at Copenhagen, and immediately departed as a missionary for Tranquebar in India. He was in the Carnatic during the English contest with Hyder Ali Cawn; and was sent by the East India Company as ambassador on one occasion to that wily Asiatic, an honourable trust which he executed with great tact and fidelity. He was treated with respect, and even affectionate attention, by many of the native princes; and so celebrated was his integrity, that he was requested by the dying rajah of Tanjore to become his adopted child's guardian, and even to manage the government of his country during his minority. Among the many fruits of his indefatigable labour, was the erection of a church at Tanjore, for which the savings of his small salary were for many years suffered to accumulate, the remainder of the expense being supplied by individuals at his solicitation. After a life of the most benevolent and effectual labour for the conversion of the heathen, this excellent man died in a house built by himself on a spot

of ground two miles east of Tanjore, (given him by the before-mentioned rajah,) aged 71, 1798. The embassy of Schwartz to Hyder Ali, as recorded by dean Pearson, his biographer, is interesting in every point of view. Sir Thomas Rumbold, governor of Madras, having sent for the missionary, told him that, as it was feared Hyder Ali meditated warlike designs, he knew of no one so fit as himself (since he spoke Hindustanee well, and was known and respected by many of the Indian princes), to go to him, and assure him that the English entertained peaceable thoughts. 'As the intention of the journey (continued Sir Thomas) is good and Christian, namely, to prevent the effusion of human blood, and to preserve this country in peace, this commission militates not against, but highly becomes, your sacred office; and therefore we hope you will accept it.' Schwartz, after a little consideration, acquiesced, and set out July 1st, 1779, from Trichinopoly, accompanied by his catechist, Tattianaden. 'On the 24th of August (says the missionary himself) we arrived at the fort of Mysore, from which the country takes its name, and observed with delight the beauty of the surrounding scenery. A high hill, on which a pagoda is built, was formerly dangerous to travellers. The pagan mountaineers, imagining that their deities took peculiar pleasure in the offering of a *human nose*, frequently rushed out upon travellers, cut off their noses, and offered them to their idols. Hyder has, however, strictly forbidden this inhuman practice; so that travellers may now proceed on their way in safety. From this eminence we had a distinct, but distant view of Seringapatam, which we reached the next day. We crossed the river, over a bridge built entirely of stone. On the other side of the fortress, there is another arm of the river; so that Seringapatam is an island. From the point at which the river divides into these two branches, the fortifications com-

mence. The palace of Hyder Ali, built by himself, is very beautiful, according to the style of eastern architecture. It is entirely of hewn stone, with numerous pillars. At the extremity of the pagoda stands the ancient palace of the kings of Mysore. The former possessor of the throne, to whom Hyder allows an annual income, still inhabits it. He has his servants, but is treated as a prisoner of state. Hyder himself sometimes visits him, and stands in his presence as a servant. Though Hyder sometimes rewards his servants, the main-spring of action here is terror. The tyrant keeps 200 men with whips in constant readiness; and no day passes without many being chastised. The governor of a whole district is whipped in the same manner as the meanest groom. When I was admitted to an audience, Hyder bade me sit next to him on the floor, which was covered with the richest carpets; and I was not required to take off my shoes. He listened to all I had to say, expressed himself in a very frank manner, and told me that notwithstanding the Europeans had violated their public engagements, he was willing to live in peace with them. Whilst sitting near Hyder, I was struck with the expeditious manner in which public business was despatched. When he had ceased conversing with me, some letters were read to him, and he dictated an immediate answer. The secretaries hastened away, wrote the letter, read it before him, and he affixed his seal to it. In this way many letters were written in the course of the evening. Hyder himself can neither read nor write; but he has an excellent memory, and few have the courage to impose upon him. He orders one to write a letter, and then has it read to him; after which he calls another, and hears it read a second time; and if the secretary has not strictly conveyed his meaning, and has in the least deviated from his orders, *his head pays for it*. On the last evening, when

I went to take my leave of Hyder, he requested me to speak Persian before him, as I had done with some of his attendants. Of this language he understood a little; but he does not speak it. I did so; and explained the motives of my journey to him. "You may perhaps wonder," said I, "what could have induced me, a priest, to come to you, on an errand which does not properly belong to my sacerdotal functions. But as I was plainly told that the sole object of my journey was the preservation and confirmation of peace, and having witnessed the misery and horrors attending on war, I thought how happy I should deem myself, if I could be of service in cementing a friendship between the two governments. This I considered as a commission in nowise inconsistent with my office, as a minister of a religion of peace." He said with great cordiality, "Very well! very well! I am of the same opinion with you; and my only wish is that the English would live in peace with me. If they offer me the hand of peace and concord, I shall not withdraw mine, provided—" But of these mysterious provisions nothing can now be ascertained. 'I then (adds Schwartz) took my leave; and on entering my palanquin, found 300 rupees, which he had sent me to defray the expenses of my journey.' The conscientious missionary wished to decline this present, but was told by Hyder's officers that it would endanger their lives if they presumed to take it back. He then expressed his desire to return it in person; but he was informed that it was contrary to etiquette to readmit him into their master's presence, after having had his audience of leave, or to receive any written representation on the subject; and that Hyder, knowing that a great present would offend him, had purposely limited it to the lowest amount of travelling expenses.

The East India Company have raised a monument to the memory of Schwartz in his own church at

Tanjore, and have inscribed thereon the Rajah's own lines, which, being perhaps the only specimen of English verse attempted by a prince of India, are worth recording :

' Firm wast thou, humble and wise,
Honest, pure, free from disguise :
Father of orphans, the widow's support,
Comfort in sorrow of every sort :
To the benighted dispenser of light—
Doing, and pointing to, that which is right :
Thou blessing to princes, to people, to me,
May I, my father, be worthy of thee,
Wishoth and prayeth thy Sarabojee !'

JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, a Socinian preacher, who becoming known to Franklin, turned his attention to physics. When librarian to lord Shelburne, he greatly distinguished himself by a ' Treatise on Aëriform Fluids ;' and indeed may be considered the founder of the science of pneumatic chemistry. His doctrine of phlogiston, however, founded on the existence of a certain inflammable principle or matter in combustible bodies, though wonderfully applauded and supported for a time, the doctor lived to see exploded. Lord Shelburne deservedly took umbrage at the philosopher's expressions of doubt as to the immateriality of the soul ; and a separation, with 150*l.* per annum being the result, Dr. Priestley removed to Birmingham, to preach to an Arian congregation, 1780. It was in 1791 that a party, favourable to his political notions, met in the town, to celebrate the taking of the Bastille by the French revolutionary mob ; and another party, assembling to oppose the advocates of liberty, attacked the meeting-houses, as so many nurseries of sedition, and together with them, destroyed the house, library, manuscripts, and philosophical instruments of Dr. Priestley. The philosopher, after obtaining partial compensation for his loss from the county, removed to Hackney, and ultimately to America ; where he was enabled to give free course to his sentiments as regarded religion and government, and where he died 1804, aged 71.

HUGH BLAIR (1718—1800), born at Edinburgh, entered the Scottish

kirk, and when pastor of the High Church at Edinburgh, published in 1777 the first volume of his sermons, which Mr. Strahan, the king's printer, declined to purchase, until induced to do so by Dr. Johnson's high opinion. Its sale was so rapid, that the publishers bought the succeeding volumes at very high prices ; while the government rewarded him with a pension of 200*l.* at the suggestion of queen Charlotte. In divinity, these discourses must yield to the stores of many of our old as well as modern divines ; but as practical and elegantly constructed homilies, they are highly valuable, and have done great good. His ' Lectures on Composition' form an able digest of the rules of eloquence, as applicable to the various species of oratory. Dr. Blair died 1800, aged 82.

JOHN LOGAN was a divine of the Scottish kirk, whose tragedy of ' Runicnime' was acted with great applause at Edinburgh. But his celebrity is founded on his powers as a pulpit-orator ; and perhaps the whole circle of English theology affords no specimens of eloquence of the persuasive kind equal to some passages in Logan's sermons, written as they were, not for publication, but simply for preaching to his ordinary congregation. All students of divinity in our own church would do well in making themselves acquainted with these sterling discourses. In tragic poetry this good man attempted what was not his forte : he is all tenderness, simplicity, elegance, —but fire and sublimity, so essential to seize the passions in dramatic compositions of the higher class, are in Logan singularly wanting. He died, aged only 40, 1788.

DAVID HUME (1711—1776) was born at Edinburgh, and was secretary to lord Hertford in his embassy to Paris. In the summer of 1765, he was left chargé-d'affaires there ; and soon after, on his return to Scotland, was persuaded to become under-secretary of state to general Conway. In 1769 he returned to Edinburgh

very opulent, as he observes, with 1000*l.* a year, healthy, though somewhat stricken in years, with the prospect of enjoying long the *otium cum dignitate*. In 1776, however, a disorder of the bowels carried him to the grave, at the age of 65. His 'History of England to the Fall of the Stuarts', and his 'Natural History of Religion,' are his principal works. Though Hume possesses the deep research of the historian, and the patience of the philosopher, he is to be read with caution; as his principles, both religious and moral, are insidiously clothed in fallacious language, and tend to undermine the salutary doctrines which can alone guide us through this vale of sorrow and error.

EDWARD GIBBON, son of a gentleman of fortune, was born at Putney, Surrey, and after a partial education at Westminster (through his delicate health) was sent as a commoner to Magdalen college, Oxford, where (still on account of his health) he only remained fourteen months. On reading some works of controversy, he, being certainly of no religion before, became a Roman Catholic; on which account his father banished him to Lausanne, where he without difficulty became a protestant. In 1758 he returned to England, and for eight years he had a seat in parliament; and at the peace of 1763 he travelled to Rome, where, amidst the ruins of the capitol, he planned his 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' This able work is throughout tinged with sceptical opinions; and though elegantly written, the style is commonly too dignified for the subject; while, from a wish to avoid needless repetitions, the author is often very obscure. Mr. Gibbon died, aged 57, 1794.

ADAM SMITH, a Scotsman, after completing his studies at Balliol college, Oxford, became professor of moral philosophy at Glasgow. His 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' wherein he makes sympathy the source of our opinions upon the pro-

priety or impropriety of actions, and his 'Essay on the Origin of Languages,' introduced him to the learned; and after a long residence in France, during which he formed friendships with Necker, Marmon- tel, and other men of note, he wrote his great work 'The Wealth of Nations,' which may be said to have originated the modern science of political economy. Dr. Smith was a speculative man, and a freethinker. He died 1790, aged 67.

LAURENCE STERNE, born in Ireland, was grandson of an archbishop of York, and educated at Jesus college, Cambridge. During a residence of twenty years on his livings of Stillington and Sutton, he was no otherwise known than as a reading, painting, musical, and sporting divine. In 1759 came out the first volume of 'Tristram Shandy,' which went on to nine, and was vastly popular. It was an attempt to ridicule pedantry and false philosophy; but large portions were shown to have been borrowed from Burton. His 'Sentimental Journey' had still greater success; but in this he has exaggerated impulsive feeling to an extent often closely bordering on absurdity, whilst the morality of the book is highly exceptionable. Sterne, who wrote under the assumed name of Yorick, died 1768, aged 55.

WILLIAM PALEY (1743—1805) was born at his father's living near Peterborough, and completed his studies at Christ-church college, Cambridge, of which, after being some years assistant in a school, he became fellow and tutor. By the patronage of Law, bishop of Carlisle, he obtained preferment, and dedicated to that prelate his 'Elements of Moral and Political Philosophy.' The object of his 'Horæ Paulinæ,' is to gather from the Acts and Epistles such passages as furnish examples of undesigned coincidence, and thus prove the Scriptures authentic, independently of inspiration. His 'Evidences of Christianity,' containing a view of the arguments for the truth

of our holy religion, the most complete that has ever appeared, are drawn up with a clearness and logical skill peculiar to Paley. His last work was 'Natural Theology,' the object of which is to trace a final cause in the operations of the Deity ; or, in other words, to show that the Creator had an object, and that a benevolent one, in bringing every thing into being. Paley confines himself to the human frame for examples. Although the moral and political philosophy of Paley is now become a text-book, not a few of its propositions are liable to exception ; and expediency is very frequently admitted in place of that which is right. Amongst instances of the author's inclination to apologize for existing practices, rather than, as a Christian moralist, point out the path of religion and virtue, from which it is forbidden to deviate, be the expediency ever so urgent, we may quote his 'Law of Honour.' In private life, Paley was the most facetious man imaginable ; himself indulging in wit and merriment, and greatly admiring it in others. He died, aged 62, 1805.

JOHN HOWARD, the philanthropist, was the son of a carpet-seller in London ; and setting out to view the effects of the earthquake at Lisbon, he was captured by a privateer, and sent to a French prison. His confinement there, and the experience he obtained of gaols by serving the office of sheriff of Bedfordshire some time after, induced him to attempt their improvement ; and being flattered by the approbation of the commons, he travelled over the continent to inspect the various places of incarceration. While benevolently visiting one at Cherson, where a malignant epidemic was raging, he caught the disorder, and died 1790, aged 64.

WILLIAM ROBERTSON, the historian, was principal of the university of Edinburgh. His history of Scotland during the reigns of Mary and James VI., gained him great applause in his

own country ; and that of Charles V. was equally popular abroad. Of all his works, the history of Charles V. is indisputably the best. He is an uniformly accurate writer, who, without much warmth, keeps along the line of his narrative in a style of measured dignity. Dr. Robertson died, aged 72, 1793.

WILLIAM COWPER (1731—1800), nephew of lord chancellor Cowper, was born at Berkhamstead, of which his father was rector ; and after an education at Westminster, entered as a student at the Inner Temple. When, however, offered by his relative, major Cowper, the lucrative post of clerk of the house of lords, he was compelled by nervous timidity to decline its acceptance, attempting even self-destruction that he might avoid compliance. The entire loss of reason followed ; and on recovery, he found all his prospects blighted, his intended bride, his patron's daughter, estranged from him, and himself constrained to live on the mere pittance of his property. With a feeling of utter desertion, he went to board in the family of a clergyman at Huntingdon, Mr. Unwin, with whose widow he removed, in 1767, to Olney, Bucks, which thenceforth became the chief place of his abode. There he contracted a close intimacy with the curate, the celebrated low churchman, Mr. Newton ; and this friendship greatly influenced the subsequent opinions and state of mind of the poet. Supported by the maternal attentions of Mrs. Unwin, and visited by her son (a clergyman), by Hayley the poet, and a few other intellectual persons, he devoted himself to authorship when nearly fifty years of age, and became known by the publication of his 'Table Talk.' At the suggestion of lady Austen, who came to reside at Olney, he versified the story of John Gilpin, which she had related to him. This got into print, without either the author's knowledge or his name ; and all began to inquire who had written a ballad that was sung in every street, and

stantly affect a happiness which they fain would feel, cheating themselves, as it were, with the hope that the effect will produce the cause, is true enough: hence, when authors, their sufferings appear but little in their works. Some of the choicest productions in our language, and in the language of all nations, have sprung from the pangs of hypochondriasis; and the pages that have made a host of readers gay, have been the price of a malady which seems to imbody every other form of affliction. Hypochondriacs can be diverted, it is also true, from reflecting upon the hallucination which goads them, and converse like other men, and in this respect are different from the insane: but he must be ranked amongst the unhappiest of the unhappy, who possesses within himself, however blameless, something akin to a wounded conscience, and who only does not feel the full horrors of his wretchedness, because, by habit, he has acquired the power of occasionally keeping his thoughts from the monster that haunts his imagination.

As respects the 'peculiar religious opinions of the poet, it must not be forgotten that, through Mr. Newton's teaching, coming upon a mind diseased, he was a hyper-calvinist. A sort of sneer at orthodoxy, or, in plain words, at the authority of the Church, as recognised by all nurtured in catholicity, is observable in all that Cowper wrote. Even his own brother, a divine of the church of England, he convinced of absolute deism, when at the point of death; though a more worthy labourer in the Christian vineyard than the Rev. John Cowper, could scarcely, from general accounts, have been named. But such is the unhappy spiritual pride of Calvinism, that it substitutes poor human pity for the godly virtue of charity; and though professing itself as holding the lowest place in the scale of religious worth, it devotes all other creeds to perdition, and builds with an assurance perfectly presumptuous upon its own

ultimate salvation. It was the inability of the poor poet to go the whole length in this feeling of security with the party among whom his lot was cast, that (in his weakened state of mind) overwhelmed him at times and at last with despair.

ROBERT BURNS (1759 — 1796), while labouring at the plough for his father, a small farmer at Ayr, in Scotland, obtained the rudiments of education. The tales of an old woman about the farm, and the occasional sight of poetical works, at length induced the young rustic to court the muses; and he produced some amatory and other verses, which brought him many admiring friends. Ardent in temperament as was the young poet, he was soon lost in the round of convivial habits, and took a hearty dislike to his plebeian occupation. One or two trades and ultimately a small farm of his own, were then tried with ill success; and he was on the point of sailing for Jamaica, when a letter from Dr. Blacklock induced him to visit Edinburgh. His success was far greater than his expectations had warranted; and becoming possessed of 500*l.* by the sale of a volume of poems, he left the metropolis, again took a farm, and obtained an exciseman's place at Dumfries. He still sent forth short poems of touching pathos, especially adapted to the taste of his country; but his intemperate habits increased, and he fell a prey to a disorder attendant upon such a course, 1796, aged thirty-seven. The poems of Burns display a vigour of sentiment, and a purity of style (clad as they are in a rustic garb; and imbued as they are with the coarse and indecent allusions of his grade), that will not only insure fame to their author, but advance him high in the records of native genius. His history, however, affords a striking example of the utter futility of extraordinary talents; nay, of their conversion from a blessing to a curse, if the possessor be devoid of prudence and self-control; defects always the

result of some negligence as regards early moral and religious culture.

THE WARTONS were two brothers, sons of the Rev. Thomas Warton, professor of poetry at Oxford, and vicar of Basingstoke, who died 1745. *Joseph* (1722—1800) was born at Dunsfold, Surrey; and after an education at Winchester-school, and Oriel college, Oxford, accompanied the duke of Bolton to France, 1751, and afterwards received from His Grace Wynslade rectory, Hants, and the living of Tunworth. In 1755 he was elected second master of Winchester-school, and in 1766 was placed at the head of that foundation; and under him were educated a series of talented men till 1793, when he resigned. He died rector of Upham, aged 78, 1800; respected as an able critic, and commentator on Pope and Dryden, and as a writer on the principles of poetry in general. *Thomas* (1728—1790) was educated at Winchester-school, and Trinity college, Oxford; and he had already become known as a tasteful poet by his 'Progress of Discontent,' when, on the appearance of 'Isis,' an elegy by Mason, which reflected upon Oxford university, he replied to him, though but twenty-one, with 'The Triumph of Isis,' in which he procured himself great reputation by vindicating Alma Mater. At length a fellow of his college, he devoted all his leisure to literature, and became acquainted with Johnson, and that circle of which he was the centre, by his labours as a commentator on Spenser, Milton, and some of the Greek poets. His 'History of English Poetry' is a very erudite and valuable, though a somewhat dry work; and that and his poetical effusions obtained him the laureatship after Whitehead, 1785; soon after which he was chosen Camden professor of history at Oxford. Blessed with a great flow of health, and in the possession of comfort and independence in the society of his college, Warton knew little of the concerns of life till, in his sixty-second year, he felt an

attack of the gout. A journey to Bath removed the complaint; and he was promising himself more years of intellectual enjoyment, when, after spending a cheerful day in the common-room of his college, he was seized with a paralytic stroke, 20th of May, 1790, which terminated his existence on the following day, at the age of 62. In general demeanour Warton was affable and easy, his conversation was full of anecdote, and he aspired to the name of a ready and frequent punster; a qualification which is said to have at length rendered him fully sensible of 'the curse of wit.' One of the fellows, by no means remarkable for talent, came, on one occasion, while taking his turn to read the service, to that line in the Psalms, 'Lord thou knowest my simpleness.' 'Why,' said Warton to some one by him in chapel, who repeated it, 'that is known well enough to every body.' When the presidency of the college was vacant some little time after, the poet, who canvassed for the succession, asked the fellow in question for his vote, which, as ill fortune would have it, was the casting one. 'No, no,' replied the latter, 'I am not so simple as *that*!' and Warton lost his election.

WILLIAM JONES (1748—1794), born in London, was educated at Harrow, under Mrs. Thackeray and Summer, who regarded him as the 'mind' of the school, and at University college, Oxford. He visited the continent, 1767, with his pupil, lord Althorpe; in 1770 entered as a law student at the Temple; and was called to the bar, 1775. He was now rather a legal writer than a brief-supplied barrister; and his love of oriental learning, which he had pursued with extreme ardour at Oxford, was rewarded by the judgeship of the supreme court of judicature, Bengal, which he received with knighthood, 1789. On being thus advanced to his wishes, he married Miss Shipley, daughter of the bishop of St. Asaph, and departed with his bride for Cal-

cutta; and on his arrival there, he established an Asiatic society, to illustrate the history and antiquities of the East. Revelling amid the stores of oriental literature, his leisure was devoted (to the great injury of his health) to the acquirement of the Sanscrit language, and a knowledge of the Brahmin code; and he at length became so well versed in eastern customs, and had so admirable an acquaintance with Hindu and Mohammedan law, that he was regarded both by Moslims and aboriginal Indians as competent to decide their controversies, and appealed to with that view. In 1793 lady Jones had been obliged to proceed to England for the recovery of her health; and sir William was to have followed, when he had concluded a digest of the Hindu and Mohammedan codes, which had long occupied his hours: unhappily, however, he was seized in April, 1794, with inflammation of the liver, which terminated his existence at Calcutta in a few days, in his 47th year. Sir William has left good evidence of his talents in his works, historical, poetical, and legal; in all which a polished elegance of diction is conspicuous. A pious and sincere Christian, his researches were directed to investigate, and to prove from oriental books, and from the various traditions of the heathen natives, the great historical facts contained in the holy scriptures; and his labours in this way demand our most grateful respect.

RICHARD GLOVER (1711—1785), born in London, was educated at Cleam school; but though engaging afterwards with his father in the Hamburg trade, he devoted his leisure to the muses, and produced 'Leonidas,' a poem, if not of the first order, abounding in noble sentiments finely expressed, and which was highly countenanced by the party in opposition to sir Robert Walpole, headed by Frederick, prince of Wales. His ballad of 'Hosier's Ghost' served to rouse a spirit of na-

tional hostility against the Spaniards and the ministry; and being chosen by the London merchants to conduct an application to parliament complaining of the neglect of trade, 1742, he delivered a speech at the bar of the house which brought him extraordinary applause. During a period of embarrassment in his affairs, he produced his tragedies of 'Boadicea' and 'Medea,' which though acted, had no great success; and upon an improvement taking place in his circumstances, he was chosen member for Weymouth, and regarded by the mercantile interest as an active and able supporter. He died, aged 74, 1785.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH (1729—1774), born in Ireland, was the third of four sons; and his father, intending him for the church, sent him to Trinity college, Dublin. He preferred, however, medicine to divinity, and passed to Edinburgh. There his benevolence drew him into difficulties; and his offer to answer for the payment of the debts of an ungrateful fellow-collegian, obliged him to fly from Scotland, and he immediately embarked for the continent. From Rotterdam, where he had landed, he proceeded to Brussels, and to Strasburg, and visited Louvain, where he took his degree of M.B. He now became tutor to a young man whom the sudden possession of a large fortune had induced to make the tour of Europe; but the disposition of the preceptor and the pupil were so different, that while visiting the south of France, they separated. After a long excursion, chiefly on foot, Goldsmith at last reached Dover in 1758, persecuted by poverty. The rustic appearance of his dress, and his broad Irish accent, proved unfavourable to his prospects of employment; till at last a chemist in Fish-street, pitying his misfortunes, received him into his laboratory. From the hospitable roof of this accidental patron he soon rose to consequence, under the patronage of his old friend Dr. Sleigh; and after being usher in a school at

Peckham, he commenced writer in the 'Monthly Review,' and then in the 'Public Ledger,' where his 'Citizen of the World' first appeared, under the title of 'Chinese Letters.' Now emerging from his obscure lodgings near the Old Bailey, he took chambers in the Temple, and lived like a man of fashion and fortune. His 'Traveller,' his 'Vicar of Wakefield,' and his 'Letters on the History of England,' added to his income; and in 1768, his 'Good-natured Man,' acted at Covent-garden, placed him in the rank of the popular writers of the age. His excellent poem of 'The Deserted Village' appeared in 1770: and two years after he produced his comedy of 'She Stoops to Conquer,' which was received with deserved applause. He published besides, a 'History of England,' a 'Roman History,' a 'Grecian History,' a 'History of the Earth and Animated Nature,' &c.; but though his income was respectable, he was far from feeling the comforts of independence. His temper was peevish; and though benevolent, the friend of indigent and pining merit, he was often a prey to childish moroseuess, and frequently retired from the company of the gay and the convivial, to brood over his imaginary woes. The last part of his life was embittered by the lingering attack of a stranguery; and bodily disease produced a settled melancholy. A nervous fever succeeded; and by inadvertently taking an improper dose of James's powder, he hastened his dissolution, 1774, at the age of 45. A monument worthy of his fame has been erected to his memory in Westminster-abbey, where a Latin inscription, in nervous language by Dr. Johnson, records his virtues. 'The Traveller' of Dr. Goldsmith abounds with animated description; and, as Dr. Johnson observed, no poem of greater excellence had appeared since the days of Pope. The 'Deserted Village' exhibits beauties peculiarly its own; and while the simple tale of indigent nature and of suffering hu-

manity can interest the heart, so long will the lines of this most correct effusion of his muse continue to be read.

THOMAS CHATTERTON (1752—1770), an extraordinary youth of Bristol, was taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, at a charity-school, and at the age of 14 articulated to an attorney at Bristol. This employment, however, was not congenial to his turn of mind; he devoted himself more to poetry, antiquities, and heraldry, than to law; and early in 1769 some of his compositions appeared in the periodical publications of the time. In 1770 he removed to London; but though he flattered the great, and espoused in political pieces the cause both of the ministry and of opposition, and though courteously treated by the radical lord-mayor, Beckford, in the height of his popularity, his income was inferior to his wants, and in a fit of despair he destroyed himself by poison, August 1770, at the age of 18. He had published a number of poems, on which his fame rests, which he described as written about 300 years before by Rowley, a Bristowyan monk; and when pressed for the originals, he refused them, declaring that he had received them from his father, whose family had for nearly 150 years been sextons of Redcliff church in Bristol, and that till then they had remained buried in the dust in an old chest over the chapel. This story, which Chatterton always supported as true, called forth the attention of the learned; and whilst some beheld in the poems all the marks of genuine antiquity, Warton, Walpole, and others represented them as the authentic productions of the youthful Chatterton, who had thus wished to disguise the first efforts of his muse by assuming the name of antiquity.

JAMES BEATTIE, born in Kincardineshire, was educated at Aberdeen, and afterwards undertook the care of Alloa school in Fifeshire. He removed to Aberdeen grammar-school as assistant, and married the daugh-

ter of the head master. His elegant poem, 'The Minstrel,' begun in 1771, and finished in three years, procured him the patronage of lord Errol, and the professorship of moral philosophy and logic in the Marischal college of Aberdeen, with a pension of 200*l*. from the king. Soon after he visited London; where he was received by Dr. Johnson, Dr. Porteus, and other literary characters, with all the respect due to merit and virtue. He died 1803. Besides his 'Minstrel,' he published an 'Essay on the Nature and Immutability of Truth, in opposition to Sophistry and Scepticism,' 1770, a work of great merit, and so forcible against David Hume's doctrines, that he never heard the name of Dr. Beattie mentioned without emotion.

ERASMUS DARWIN (1732—1802), born at Newark, was educated at St. John's college, Cambridge, and then went to Edinburgh, where he studied physic, and took his medical degrees. He settled at Lichfield, where he acquired celebrity in his profession. After the death of his wife 1770, he married the widow of colonel Pole, with a handsome fortune, by whose persuasion, in 1781, he retired to Derby. He died at Derby very suddenly, aged 70, 1802. The best known of Dr. Darwin's works are his 'Botanic Garden,' with philosophical notes, 'The Economy of Vegetation,' and 'The Loves of the Plants.' As a poet, the name of Darwin is respectable. His verses display elegance, grace, and beauty, but they seldom rise to sublimity; and they please more by the easy flow of numbers than by the fire of description. In his 'System of Plants,' he branches too much into the fields of fancy; and he seems delighted in informing his readers that his notions of religion were loose. Ovid changed men into trees and plants; but Darwin transforms his flowers into human beings: and he describes the inhabitants of his parterre and of his greenhouse, as conveying their amorous sighs with all the sensuality of carnal passion.

THOMAS BLACKLOCK, son of a brick-layer in Scotland, was deprived of his eyesight by the smallpox about 1721, before he was six months' old. This misfortune was relieved by the assiduities of his friends; his mind was cultivated by the books which were read to him; and at the age of twelve he wrote a small poem, not devoid of beauty and elegance. The loss of his father, who was unfortunately crushed to death by the falling of a kiln upon him, left him in his nineteenth year destitute of friends and society; but the kindness of Dr. Stevenson of Edinburgh was extended to him; and at a grammar-school he became acquainted with the French, and the best Greek and Latin authors. After studying ten years at Edinburgh, he acquired the fame of a polite scholar and an elegant poet. His poems were universally admired; and though misfortune might in the apprehension of an infidel have clouded his thoughts with dissatisfaction, that the book of nature was shut upon him, we admire every where the most sublime piety, resignation to the will of Providence, and that tranquillity of mind, which were most fully exhibited in his private character. In 1754 he was placed in an eligible situation in the university of Edinburgh; and his labours were rewarded by an ample sale of his poems. He even took orders, in 1766 obtained the degree of D.D., and died 1791, aged 70. Both Hume and Spence have been lavish of their praises on his character; and the portrait in this instance drawn by friendship is not exaggerated.

GEORGE LOUIS LE CLERC, COUNT DE BUFFON (1707—1788), was born at Montbard in Burgundy. His father destined him for the law; but nature had marked him for philosophy. After travelling in Italy, where the works of art were disregarded by him for the more attractive charms of nature, and after visiting for three short months the English dominions, he settled at home, and began his career of fame by devoting every day

fourteen hours to study. At the death of his mother he inherited about 12,000*l.* per annum; but neither pleasure nor opulence diverted his occupations. In composition he exhibited the severest correctness; his works when finished were set aside, and, some time after, he returned to the task with all the scrutinizing eye of criticism. Though devoted to the sciences, yet he was fond of company; his table displayed hospitality, and his conversation was easy, and void of all affectation of pedantry and superior knowledge. His favourite authors were Montesquieu, Fenelon, and Richardson. He died, aged 81, 1788; and his funeral was honourably attended by the learned; while 20,000 spectators assembled to view his remains borne to the vault of Montbard. Buffon's great work is his '*Histoire Naturelle*,' 35 vols. 4to; but though all his writings are entitled to celebrity, he is not without great faults. Some critics have exposed to ridicule the system which, in dividing the whole animal world into six classes, ranks in the same order men and quadrupeds, the lion with the bat, the horse with the hog as beasts of burden, and the crab and the oyster as insects with lice and fleas, and the shellfish as a worm. A carelessness on religious points is to be objected against him; and his vanity was such, that he more than once declared to friends at his table, he regarded the works of men of genius as few; 'only those of Newton, Montesquieu, Leibnitz, and my own, being entitled to that praise.' His son was guillotined during the revolution, 1793, exclaiming triumphantly, and in his father's spirit, on the scaffold, 'Citizens, my name is Buffon!'

JEAN JACQUES ROUSSEAU (1712—1778) was son of a watchmaker of Geneva, and born in that city. His mother died in bringing him into the world; and his birth, as he observes, was thus the first of his misfortunes. Though delicate in body, his mind evinced quickness, if not strength, at a very early age; but he had only a

chance education, and Plutarch and Tacitus, when he had somehow learned to read, became his instructors. His father was professedly a protestant; but having himself no notion of religion, it was happy for him, that, on seeking an asylum under the roof of the bishop of Anneci, (when, through discontent, he had run away from home,) he was induced by the worthy prelate to be taught the first principles of Christianity. Madame de Warens, who had recently quitted the reformed for the Romish faith, was appointed his preceptor; but the unsettled Jean Jacques soon quitted her hospitable roof, to teach music at Chambéry. In 1741 he removed to Paris, and two years after went as secretary with the French ambassador to Venice; but his restless spirit could not long bear servitude, and in consequence of a quarrel with his employer, he returned to Paris. Here he was noticed by Dupin, the farmer-general, who gave him an office in his department; and in 1750 he began his literary career, and obtained the prize of the academy of Dijon, on the subject 'Whether the re-establishment of the arts and sciences has been conducive to the purity of morals?' He adopted, by the advice of Diderot, the negative position, and defended it with such eloquence, that he excited a number of literary antagonists. He next attracted public attention by his discourse on the causes of inequality among men, and on the origin of society; a work of singular character, which unites the boldest flights of imagination with the most incoherent notions, and elevates savage nature above the comforts of domestic and social life. This composition, dedicated to the republic of Geneva, restored him to the favour of his native country, and to the protestant faith. After returning for a while to Paris, he retired to solitude. His letter to D'Alembert, on the subject of establishing a theatre at Geneva, drew upon him the censures of Voltaire; and it was remarked that this

bold advocate for the purity of morals against the contagion of theatrical representation, had himself written a comedy and a pastoral, which had been exhibited on the Paris stage. His next work was the Dictionary of Music, which contains many valuable articles. His 'Heloise' appeared in 1761; and, notwithstanding its many defects and immorality, excited much of the public attention by its bold delineation of character, its interesting details, and its fascinating language. Heloise was followed in 1762 by 'Emilius,' a moral romance of still greater celebrity. In this work the philosopher wishes to leave in education every thing to nature; and whilst he inveighs against the luxuries and the prejudices of the age, he speaks truths worthy of a Plato and a Tacitus. It is, however, much to be lamented, that in tracing out the education of a young man, and in drawing a most affecting picture of the divine Author of Christianity, and of the sublime beauties of the Gospel, he attacks the miracles and the prophecies on which that divine revelation rests, and builds his system of salvation on reason and natural religion! The book, though popular, was exposed to the censures of the parliament of Paris, and the author hastened out of France. He sought an asylum at Geneva, but the gates of the city were shut against him; and he retired to Neufchatel in Switzerland, where he began to write a defence of his principles. Here the populace was roused to violence by the pulpit discourses of the clergy of the neighbourhood; and fearing greater insults than the pelting of his windows, he fled from Neufchatel. Berne was also shut against him, and he hastened to Strasburg; where De Contades relieved his necessities, and enabled him to proceed to Paris. There he found the protection of David Hume. With the English philosopher he travelled to London; but whilst he fled from persecution, the citizen of Geneva still longed for celebrity. In Eng-

land he was a common man, and not the favourite of the people, admired and applauded; and therefore he soon quarrelled with Hume, and left the kingdom in disgust. He returned to Paris, where he was permitted to remain, provided he wrote nothing offensive against the government. Restless and suspicious, he now appeared in the Armenian dress; and when flattered by those who revered his abilities, he declared himself insulted, and interpreted the approbation of the world as a regular system of persecution from men of letters. He died of apoplexy at Ermenonville, the estate of M. de Girardin, 30 miles from Paris, 1778, aged 66; and in the isle of Poplars, in this beautiful retreat, are inscribed these words:—'Ici repose l'homme de la nature et de la vérité!' Rousseau married in 1769, at Bourgoin in Dauphiné, a woman of the name of Le Vasseur, who, without elegance of manners, and without mental attainments, exercised over him the most absolute dominion. She however gave him in return all the attentions of a nurse and a friend, and accompanied him in all his wanderings; but both herself and Rousseau, as parents, merit our utmost reprobation—having most unnaturally put their children, as they were born, into the Foundling, and thus disowned them. The 'Confessions' of Rousseau, a work of unblushing frankness, relates that among other misdeeds of the autobiographer.

JEAN LE ROND D'ALEMBERT (1717—1783) was born at Paris. He was exposed as a foundling; and from the church near which he almost perished, he received the name of Le Rond. His father at last listened to the cries of nature, and had the satisfaction soon to learn that his son's abilities were brilliant, and his improvement unusually rapid. As the flashes of his genius were early displayed, he was encouraged by his friends to seek reputation in studying the law; but that pursuit as well as medicine was quickly abandoned, and retirement

and geometry seemed his only ambition. In the house of his nurse, whose poverty did not diminish the flow of his affections, he passed forty years, and refused to quit this humble dwelling for the splendour of a palace. Frederick the Great, whose friendship he enjoyed through life, invited him to Berlin with the most liberal offers, but he refused: and when the empress Catherine solicited him to take the care of the education of her son, with the promise of a pension of a hundred thousand livres, he declined the princely offer in firm but respectful terms. His labours were usefully exerted on philosophical subjects. He examined the power of fluids on the motion of bodies; wrote a discourse on the general theory of the winds, which obtained the prize medal at Berlin in 1746; solved the problem of the precession of the equinoxes; and explained the rotation of the terrestrial axis. And in these and other numerous philosophical works, he enriched science with new facts, and explained the various phenomena of nature in the most interesting points of view. Few, but select, were the friends to whom this great man was known; and it must be considered as not the least striking part of his character, that he who was flattered by the learned, courted by the great, and admired by princes, did not pay any adoration to power; but he dedicated his work to the count d'Argenson and his brother, two men who had been banished from the court, but who in their prosperity had seen and respected the philosopher, and had rewarded his genius by the grant of a small pension. To him we are to ascribe the plan of the *Encyclopédie*; and he adorned this stupendous work by writing the preliminary discourse, so deservedly admired for the masterly record which it unfolds concerning the rise, progress, connexions, and affinities of all the branches of human knowledge, and the gradual improvement of the arts and sciences. The friends of D'Alembert could not, however, per-

ceive in the philosopher and his coadjutors in the *Encyclopédie* the supporters of virtue and morality; and latter times have too fatally, too bitterly proved that a work, which, in explaining the mysteries of philosophy, disarms providence of her powers of benevolence and government, and obscures the views of salvation which religion holds forth to her votaries, but ill deserves the applause of mankind. He also published a dissertation on the fall of the Jesuits; and his 'Opuscles or Memoirs,' in nine volumes, contained among other things the solution of problems in astronomy, mathematics, and natural philosophy. He died, aged 66, 1783.

JEAN FRANÇOIS MARMONTEL (1719—1798) was born at Bort, in Limousin. Though but the son of a tailor, he was well educated at Toulouse, where he obtained some poetical prizes; and afterwards, in 1745, he came to Paris in the habit of an abbé. The friendship of Voltaire and his own merits procured him the favour of the great; he obtained the place of historiographer to the king's buildings, and conducted the periodical journal, called 'Le Mercure.' A severe parody from one of Cinna's scenes, in which he satirized a courtier of influence, drew upon him the displeasure of the government, and he was sent to the Bastille. When released, he established his fame by his tragedies and operas; but his 'Contes Moraux' procured him still greater celebrity. In the revolution he retired into obscurity, and though reduced to indigence, bore his misfortunes with composure. He was in 1797 elected a member of the Council of Ancients; and he showed himself firm, correct in his opinions, and the friend of virtue and religion. He died of apoplexy, 1798, at Abbeville, near Gaillon, whither he had retired, aged 79. Marmontel's literary character chiefly depends on his 'Contes Moraux,' which have been translated into every European language, and are known to every reader

as full of agreeable and pleasing delineations of character, though too often artfully fascinating and immoral in their tendency. His autobiography is a highly interesting work, and throws great light on the many striking events and characters of his day.

JEAN CASPAR LAVATER, born at Zurich, 1741, was pastor of the church of St. Peter's at Zurich, and acquired reputation by his eloquent discourses, and his exemplary life. He was wounded by a French soldier when Zurich was taken by storm under Massena in 1799, and died there in consequence of it, 1801, at the age of 60. He is celebrated as a physiognomist; and his writings on the subject, possessing great merit, ingenious remarks, and truly original ideas, have been translated into all the languages of Europe. He assumes, as an established maxim, that the powers and faculties of the human mind have representative signs in the *solid parts* of the countenance; thus fancifully carrying his notions of physiognomy beyond those parts of the face which exhibit the impression of mental qualities and affections to the common eye. His doctrine is akin to that of phrenology, though possessing less of rule, and assuredly not more of utility.

FREDERICK SCHILLER (1759—1805) was son of an officer in the Bavarian service, and was born at Marbach in Wurttemberg. He was noted in his childhood for great ardour of imagination; and one of his favourite books was that of Ezekiel in the Old Testament. His father, whose circumstances were flourishing, being extremely anxious that he should be brought up to the church, placed him at an early age under the superintendence of the pastor of Lorch; but a fondness for solitary contemplation, and for witnessing the grander operations of nature, as exhibited in storms and tempests, seems even at this period of his life to have drawn his mind from steady classical and mathematical study,

and to have discovered the future and peculiar bent of his genius. Notwithstanding his repugnance to scholastic discipline, he remained at school six years; when the invincible dislike which he manifested towards his destined profession, wrung from his father a reluctant consent that his studies should be henceforth directed to medicine. The works of Shakspeare, Goëthe, Klopstock, and Lessing, continued, however, chiefly to occupy his attention; and at the early age of nineteen appeared his tragedy of 'The Robbers,' which at once raised him to the foremost rank among the dramatists of his country. So powerfully conceived is this work, so wild and extravagant, that it is said to have induced several students at Leipsic to desert their college, in order to form a troop of banditti in the woods of Bohemia. The reputation he acquired by this, and two dramas which succeeded it, induced the Mannheim theatre, then the most flourishing in Germany, to offer him the post of dramatic composer; for which he gladly resigned his situation as surgeon to a regiment. Here he completed his translation of 'Macbeth,' and commenced his tragedy of 'Don Carlos,' which latter, however, was not published until ten years afterwards. His 'Philosophical Letters' were commenced about the same period; and on the termination of his Mannheim engagement he retired to Leipsic, where he commenced his labours as an historian. His first production in that capacity was a 'History of the Remarkable Conspiracies and Revolutions in the Middle and Later Ages.' A volume of poems having gained him the patronage of the duke of Saxe Weimar, he removed to Weimar in 1787, and became acquainted with Wieland, Herder, and Goëthe. His new patron also conferred upon him the title of aulic councillor, and nominated him to the professorship of history and philosophy at Jena. He accordingly took up his residence at that university, and soon after mar-

ried a woman of family and fortune, who is said to have fallen in love with him through his writings, and to have sent him a matrimonial challenge, which he immediately accepted. At Weimar commenced his 'History of the Thirty Years' War,' which appeared in 1791, and is considered his best historical work. At this juncture he underwent a severe pulmonary attack, from which he never entirely recovered; for although he experienced a partial and temporary restoration, during which he composed 'Wallenstein,' the most elaborate and splendid of his dramas, he was carried off by a relapse in 1805, at the age of 46. As a dramatic writer, Schiller has some pretensions to head the school which looks inward for character and sentiment, and is more or less disposed to give the metaphysical hue of the author to the creation of his fancy, rather than to enter into the real varieties of human existence, and to lose self in a borrowed train of associations. In his earlier dramatic productions, the brilliancy of his genius concealed its extravagance; and to the last he went to the extreme of the taste of his country for high-wrought representations of passion, to the violation of nature and probability. His claims however to exalted genius are undeniable. Besides the works mentioned, he wrote a singular romance entitled 'The Ghost Seer,' which displays his peculiar turn of mind quite as forcibly as his other productions.

JOHN WESLEY (1703—1791), son of the rector of Epworth, Lincolnshire, was born at his father's living, and educated at the Charterhouse, and Christ-church, Oxford. In 1726 he became fellow and tutor of Lincoln college. He early expressed himself against the damnable clauses of the Athanasian Creed, and was one of that small society formed on principles of greater austerity than prevailed in the university, which received the appellation of methodians, or methodists, from the other colle-

gians. In 1735, after having been ordained, he embarked for America, for the conversion and spiritual instruction of the natives and settlers; and, accompanied by his brother Charles, he displayed his strong powers of eloquence in the cause of methodism. Here he gave way to the emotions of love; but Miss Causton, the object of his passion, growing impatient at his delay, gave her hand to a more favoured suitor. The saint hereupon, comparing the disappointment to the plucking out of his right eye, carried his pique so far as to repel the virtuous bride from the altar; a gross attack which was resented by the lady, who published to the world some transactions not very honourable to the preacher, and in consequence he left America. In 1738 Wesley began his career of proselytism. Believing himself set at liberty from the bonds of sin by divine illumination, he soon saw himself followed by admiring converts, and zealously delivered his doctrines in a conventicle established in Fetter-lane. The number of the faithful rapidly increased; and the founder of the sect, by the solemn imposition of hands, sent forth his apostles to propagate the faith. In 1751 he married Mrs. Vizzelle, a widow of independent fortune; but whatever might have been the motives to this union, it proved unfortunate, and showed that however calculated Wesley might be to take the lead of a sect, he was very unwilling to spare attention to the happiness of a wife, and the lady fled from his home. The increase of his followers flattered his pride; and impressed with the idea that his success was the influence of Heaven, his adherents easily believed that methodism was the work of God. But whilst he affected humility in his intercourse with the multitude, with the strong powers which constitute the leader, with coolness, perseverance, and popular eloquence, he kept in his own hands the supreme authority, and the whole spiritual machine was moved according to his direction;

so that, in the most distant corners of the empire, his censures had as much the weight of law and correction, as if he had himself personally pronounced the sentence of reproof or dismissal. This extraordinary character, who for more than half a century exercised the most absolute authority, and with undiminished effect, over his followers, died 1791, in his 88th year. Though the sermons which he published are superior to those of his fraternity, they must be considered as loose and desultory, conveying little to the mind, but, by familiar allusions or vulgar imagery, commanding the attention of the ignorant. It has been doubted whether he was hypocritical or sincere, and actuated more by interested pride than unspotted piety; but though ambitious of power, greedy of pre-eminence, and impatient of contradiction, it is plain that he was influenced by motives of benevolence, and that his zeal was directed, whether by proper or improper means, to promote the future happiness of man. He published various tracts and controversial pamphlets against the Calvinists and Moravians; for he had no charity whatever for any schism but his own. As respects his personal character, he was as upright in morals as he affected to be. Vanity, and the love of power, were his leading foibles; and there was as great a portion of human policy mixed up with his religious system, as in that of any secular potentate whatever. Like Luther, whom it was his boast to imitate, he had his corporal conflicts with the Tempter of mankind; but while the sturdy son of a Saxon miner gloried in having 'found foeman worthy of his blade,' and having, 'in return for his stinging assaults,' these are his own words, 'given the arch-fiend his due,' the meek methodist vaunts himself 'in that he bore his buffetings with the patience and equanimity becoming a martyr.'

WILLIAM HUNTINGDON was son of a farmer's labourer in Kent; and

after passing his years till manhood in menial occupations, and (according to his own confession) in the indulgence of the most sensual vices, became in 1762 a Calvinistic preacher. Being regarded as the head of a peculiar sect, on account of some hyper-calvinistic notions, his followers erected a large chapel for him in Gray's-inn-road, London, where, having appended S. S. (sinner saved) as a sort of degree to his name, he, with extraordinary vulgarity and ignorance, attempted to instruct mankind till the period of his death, at the age of 69, 1813. His second marriage produced him considerable wealth, his wife being the widow of Sir James Saunderson, a London alderman. Amidst a profusion of works, displaying the author's defective reasoning powers and utter want or neglect of mental cultivation, his 'Bank of Faith' had a great run among his immediate congregation; as also had his vulgar attack, called 'The Arminian Skeleton,' wherein he *dissects*, as he terms it, the opponents of Calvinism. The plans of this fanatical person to obtain support from his deluded followers, leave no doubt in the mind respecting his knavish character. 'During the space of three years,' he writes, 'I secretly wished in my soul that God would favour me with a chapel of my own. He despaired of such a favour; but at length it was given by an interposition which he ascribes to the Deity in person. A stranger 'was sent to look at a certain spot,' he continues, 'a wise man was stirred up to offer to build it. God *drew the pattern* in his imagination, while he was hearing me preach a sermon. I then took the ground, and the chapel sprung up like a mushroom!' This fortunate facility of obtaining whatever he asked for was of course not suffered to remain without fruits. He next applied for clothes. 'My surtout was got very thin and bad, and the weather was at that time very cold: I felt it as I was going to preach, and I prayed secretly for a coat. As soon

as I had delivered my discourse, I desired a young man to fetch my old great-coat, in order to put it on before I went out of the warm meeting-house. When he came back, lo! he brought me a new one! I told him this was not mine,—he said that it was; I put it on, and it fitted very well. In one of the pockets there was a letter, which informed me my blessed Lord and Master had sent it to me, to wrap my worthless carcass in during the very severe winter.' He soon discovered that he might as well consult his comfort in other matters. His preaching round the skirts of London fatigued him; 'so,' he continues, 'I went to prayer, and asked for more strength, less work, or a horse. I used my prayers as gunners do swivels, turning them every way, as the cases required.' The result was, that a horse was subscribed for, and given to him. But the horse was without the necessary equipments. These, however, were not long wanting. 'Soon after I got the horse,' says the knave, 'one gave me a guinea to buy a bridle, another gave me two whips, another trusted me for a saddle; and here was a full answer to my prayer.' But his horse made other wants soon perceptible. 'Having now had my horse several weeks, and going a great way regularly every Sunday, as might naturally be inferred, my breeches began to wear out. At last I was determined to go to one of my flock in Kingston, who was in the breeches line, and to get him to trust me, till my Master sent me money to pay him. I was going to London that day, and called on Mr. Croucher, a shoemaker; he told me a parcel had been left there for me. I opened it, and behold there was therein a pair of leather breeches!' A letter accompanied the preternatural gift, mentioning that if any alteration were required, 'it would be made by the giver.' To this Huntingtondon answered with the pen, 'Sir, I received your present, and thank you for it. I was going to order a pair of leather breeches, because I

did not know till now that my Master had ordered them from you. They fit very well, which convinces me that the same God who moved thy heart to give, guided thy hand to cut; because he perfectly knew my size, he having clothed me in a miraculous manner for nearly five years!' Now if we are astonished, disgusted, and alarmed at such intolerable grossness, what must we think of the frenzy, the prostration of all common sense, and the desperate insolence that belong to fanaticism? This fellow attracted vast crowds, zealous devotees, eager contributors. He possessed the reputation of 'a chosen vessel' while he lived, and has left behind him, in his death, the odour of sanctity. But what must have been the minds, the passions, and the abject love of absurdity, that could endure a man such as this, and his profane nonsense! Yet are there they who contend for every man, in religious matters, following his own private judgment, and who spurn the authority of a Church—a power alone capable of holding the balance, in matters of religion, between fanaticism on the one hand, and infidelity on the other.

JOHN ELWES (1712—1789), nephew of sir Harvey Elwes, adopted his uncle's penurious habits, and inherited his large fortune of 150,000*l*. 1754, at a period when his own property was not much inferior in amount. The history of a miser is rarely little more than a record of the mean devices of one denying himself even the necessities of life, out of an insane desire to amass riches; but in the character of Mr. Elwes there were traits of benevolence singularly conflicting with the 'auri sacra fames,' and which occasionally lured him to acts of extraordinary profusion. He had been educated at Westminster-school, and in early life had been in dissipated, but polite society; and this beginning, with all its errors, produced a very amiable and unassuming disposition, insomuch that the steady

good-temper of Mr. Elwes was always the theme of people's praise.

The uncle, sir Harvey, had set the example, as we have said, to the nephew. He had come to an estate of value, but so incumbered with mortgages, that 100*l.* per annum was as much as he could derive from it. Entering, therefore, the family-seat at Stoke, in Suffolk, sir Harvey declared he would never quit it until he had cleared its debts; and with that laudable intention, which, it is alleged, was the sole cause of his subsequent avarice, he commenced a course of saving, which ended in his accumulating the large property he bequeathed to his nephew.

The life of so singular a man as Mr. Elwes can consist, in narration, of little other than anecdotes; and we will commence with one in illustration of the natural or acquired firmness of his temper. When in a shooting excursion, at 73, to try the virtues of a pointer, one of the party unfortunately lodged two pellets in his cheek. The blood appeared, and the shot must certainly have given him pain; but when the young gentleman who had done the mischief advanced to apologize for the accident, and to express his sorrow, Mr. Elwes received him smilingly, and said, 'My dear sir, say nothing about it; I give you joy of your improvement, for I knew that you would hit something by and by.' After sitting up a whole night at play, for thousands, with the most fashionable men of the west-end of town, in splendid apartments, he would walk out at about four in the morning, not towards home, but into Smithfield, to meet his own cattle coming to market from his farm in Essex; and there would he stand in the cold or rain, bartering with a carcass-butcher for a shilling! Sometimes he would walk on in the mire to meet them; and, more than once, has gone on foot the whole way to his farm, seventeen miles from London. To see Mr. Elwes setting out on a journey was a matter truly curious. He

never travelled but on horseback, and never stopped at an inn. His first care was to put two or three eggs boiled hard into his greatcoat-pocket; baggage he never took; then, mounting one of his hunters, his next object was to get into that road where the turnpikes were fewest. Stopping under any hedge where grass and water were to be found, he would dismount, and refresh himself and horse. Mr. Elwes took up his residence at Stoke, on coming to sir Harvey's fortune. Bad as was the house he found here, he left one still worse at Marcham, of which the late colonel Timms, his nephew, used to mention the following proof: A few days after he went thither, a great quantity of rain fell in the night; and the colonel had not been long in bed before he found himself wet through. Thinking to escape the evil, he moved the bed; but he had not lain long, before he found the thing repeated. At length, after pushing the bed into a corner, where the ceiling was better secured, he contrived to sleep until morning. When he met his uncle at breakfast, he told him what had happened. 'Ay, ay!' said the old gentleman, seriously, 'I don't mind it myself; but to those who do, that's a nice corner in the rain!'

The keeping of fox-hounds was the only instance in the life of Mr. Elwes of his sacrifice of money to pleasure. But even here every thing was done in the most frugal manner. His huntsman's place was no sinecure. This famous lackey might have fixed an epoch in the history of servants: for in a morning, getting up at four, he milked the cows, tended the dogs, prepared breakfast for his master, and then slipping on a green coat, hurried into the stable. After the fatigues of hunting, he rubbed down two or three horses, then laid the cloth and waited at dinner: hurrying again into the stable, he had to feed the horses, diversified with an interlude of the cows again to milk, the dogs to tend,

and eight horses to litter down for the night. This man lived in Mr. Elwes's service many years, though his master used often to call him 'an idle dog.' An apothecary's bill was an object of the greatest aversion to Mr. Elwes; and when he had received a very dangerous kick from his horse, nothing could persuade him to have medical aid. He rode the chase through, with his leg cut to the bone; and it was only some days afterwards, when it was feared amputation would be necessary, that he consented to go up to London, and (dismal day!) part with some money for advice. He sometimes made excursions to Newmarket, but never engaged on the turf. A kindness, however, which he performed there, should not pass without notice. Lord Abington, who was slightly known to Mr. Elwes in Berkshire, had made a match for 7000*l.* which it was supposed he would be obliged to forfeit, from an inability to produce the sum, though the odds were greatly in his favour. Unasked, unsolicited, Mr. Elwes made him an offer of the money, which he accepted, and won his engagement. On the day when this match was to be run, a clergyman had agreed to accompany Mr. Elwes to see the fate of it. They were to go on horseback, and were to set out at seven in the morning. Imagining they were to breakfast at Newmarket, the divine took no refreshment, and away they went. They reached Newmarket about eleven; and Mr. Elwes began to busy himself in inquiries and conversation till twelve, when the match was decided in favour of lord Abington. Mr. Elwes's companion then thought they should move off to the town to take some breakfast; but the old gentleman still continued riding about till three, and then four o'clock arrived. The divine now grew so impatient, that he mentioned something of the keen air of Newmarket heath, and the comforts of a good dinner. 'Very true,' said

Mr. Elwes, 'very true, so, here, do as I do!' offering him at the same time from his greatcoat-pocket a piece of an old crushed pancake, which he said he had brought from his house at Marcham, two months before, 'but that it was as good as new.' The sequel of the story is, that they did not reach home till nine in the evening, and that Mr. Elwes, having hazarded 7000*l.* in the morning, went happily to bed with the reflection that he had saved *three shillings!*

As a contrast to this risk of property, which may be called the retributive disease of misers, it is amusing to reflect upon the following: One day Mr. Elwes had put his eldest son upon a ladder, to get some grapes for the table; and leaving him, the boy fell down and hurt his side. The youth instantly ran to consult the village barber; and telling his father, on his return, that he had been bled, 'Bled!' said the old gentleman; 'but what did you give?' 'A shilling,' answered the boy. 'Paha!' returned the father, 'you are a blockhead, never part with your *blood!*' Notwithstanding this corroding anxiety about pence, vast sums of money were from time to time obtained from Mr. Elwes by designing persons; no less than 150,000*l.* are said to have gone from him by various stratagems of apparently honourable persons. A small wine-merchant, for instance, begged his acceptance of some very *fine wine*, and in a short time obtained the loan of 700*l.* Mr. Elwes used to say, 'It was indeed very fine wine, for it cost me 20*l.* a bottle.' This singular man would do much to serve those who did not wish his money. Two ancient maiden ladies in his neighbourhood had incurred the displeasure of the spiritual court, and were threatened with excommunication. The full import of the word they did not understand; but they had heard something about doing penance, and to stand in a white sheet in the church was in-

stantly what they dreaded. As the sentence was to be carried into effect next day, away they hurried to Mr. Elwes, to know how it might be prevented. No time was to be lost. The miser did that which few others would have done: he had his horse saddled, and putting a couple of hard eggs into his pocket, set out for London from Marcham, a distance of 60 miles, that evening, reaching it early enough next morning to notify the submission of the culprits.

From his father Mr. Elwes had inherited some property about the Haymarket, London; and to this he added by engagements with the builders, Messrs. Adam. Of great part of Marylebone he thus became the founder; and Portland-place, and Portman-square, rose entirely out of his pocket. It was his custom when in London to occupy any of his vacant houses: a couple of beds, a couple of chairs, a table, and an old woman, comprised all his furniture; and he moved them about at a minute's warning. Mr. Elwes having taken up his abode in this manner, colonel Timms on some occasion much wished to see him, and inquired for him at all his usual places of resort. But no tidings were to be heard of a *gentleman* called Mr. Elwes; though a potboy recollected having seen a *poor old man* opening the door of a stable belonging to a large house, and locking it after him. To this stable the colonel went, and as he could make no one hear, the neighbours aided him in forcing the door of the house; and in a chamber, upon an old pallet-bed, he found stretched out, seemingly in death, the figure of old Mr. Elwes. He was insensible; but on some cordials being administered, he revived and said, 'he had, he believed, been ill for two or three days; and that there was an old woman in the house, but for some reason or other she had not been near him.' On searching for that faithful companion of all his movements, she was found dead upon the floor in the garret; and had so been, to all ap-

pearance, two days. Thus died the servant: and thus would have died, but for this providential discovery, the master! His mother, Mrs. Meggot, who possessed 100,000*l.*, starved herself to death: and her son, who certainly was then worth half a million, had nearly died in his own house from absolute want!

Mr. Elwes had resided thirteen years in Suffolk, when lord Craven nominated him for the county of Berkshire; and to this Mr. Elwes consented, on the special agreement that he was to be brought into parliament for nothing. All he did was dining at the ordinary at Abingdon; and he thus obtained his seat for the moderate sum of *eighteen pence*! He served in three successive parliaments for the same county, and was always noted for his independent mode of voting. But the honour attached to senatorial rank made no alteration in his dress: on the contrary, it seemed at this time to have attained additional meanness, and nearly to have reached that happy climax of poverty, which more than once drew on him the compassion of passers by. It is enough, while on this point, to state, that he long wore a wig which he had picked up from a rut, and which was probably the cast-off offering of some beggar. It was in 1788, at the age of seventy-six, that he began first to feel some bodily infirmities. He had an attack of the gout; and, with his accustomed antipathy to medical bills, set about its cure by walking incessantly. While engaged in this painful exercise, he frequently lost himself in the streets of London, the names of which he no longer remembered, and was as frequently brought home by some errand-boy or stranger, of whom he had inquired his way. On these occasions, he would bow to and thank his guide at the door with great civility, but never give him more substantial reward. Soon after this, while at Marcham, it was found that he could not rest at night; and he was often heard at midnight, as if struggling with some

one in his chamber, crying, 'I will keep my money, I will; nobody shall rob me of my property!' On any one going into his room, he would hurry into bed, and seem unconscious of what had happened. At other times he would walk to the spot where he had hidden five guineas, to see if they were safe. One night he missed his treasure. Mr. Partis, a friend, happened to be sleeping in the house, and was *once* awakened about two in the morning by the noise of naked feet in his bedchamber. Somewhat alarmed at the circumstance, he asked, 'Who is there?' on which a person coming up towards the bed, said with great civility, 'Sir, my name is Elwes; I have been unfortunate enough to be robbed in this house of all the money I have in the world; of five guineas and a half, and half-a-crown!' This mighty sum was found a few days after, behind a window-shutter. In the autumn of 1789 Mr. Elwes's memory left him entirely; and for six weeks previously to his death in November, he would go to rest in his clothes, sometimes even with his hat on his head, and his stick in his hand, as if fearful that they, as well as his money, should be taken from him. His decease occurred at the age of 77, 1789.

That the passion of hoarding, like all other passions carried to excess, produces insanity, as respects one class of mental associations, is clearly demonstrable. Mr. Elwes, throughout life, in common with other misers, denied himself its comforts: he would walk through the heaviest rain, rather than spend a shilling for a coach; sit in wet clothes, rather than go to the cost of a fire to dry them; eat his provisions in the last stage of putrefaction, sooner than have a fresh joint from the butcher's; and wear the cast-off apparel of the very beggar, rather than incur the risk of a tailor's bill. It would seem, therefore, a dispensation of Providence, that he who, without the natural and legal incentives to the accumulation of wealth, namely, per-

sonal need, the desire of making moderate provision for a family, or any such laudable object, still heaps up riches for the mere love of them, should at last be possessed with the notion of suffering that want which alone could authorize his saving; while the same retributive power makes it an easy matter for the hoarder to give away, or at all events to risk, thousands, with far greater complacency than he can part with their fraction—a shilling.

JOSHUA REYNOLDS (1723—1792) was born at Plympton, Devon, where his father, a clergyman, was master of the grammar-school. He was entered at a college at Oxford, with a view to taking holy orders ultimately; but nothing appeared so congenial to his taste as painting; and his father, indulging him, placed him in London, under Hudson, after which he travelled into Italy. Here he continued two years; and after improving himself in the school of Raffaele and Titian, he returned to England. His productions soon attracted public notice, and ranked him among the greatest artists of the age. But though portrait-painting was the fashion of the times, the young aspirant after fame did not neglect historical subjects. On the establishment of the Academy of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, in 1769, none seemed more entitled to the honourable office of president than Reynolds; and he accordingly was appointed, and knighted. He was the chief promoter of the literary club, established in 1764, in order to insure Dr. Johnson's society at stated periods, and which had among its members Burke, Garrick, Douglas, Goldsmith, the Wartons, Wyndham, &c. He furnished valuable annotations to his friend Mason, when he published, in 1782, a translation of Dufresnoy's *Art of Painting*; and he also contributed much to the illustrations of Shakspeare's text by his original remarks. In his academic lectures Sir Joshua displayed great taste, with a perfect acquaintance with

his profession, and strong powers of language, sound judgment, an elegant style, and luminous order. The last portrait which he painted was of Mr. Fox, which displayed in that late period of life the strong powers of his elegant taste. He resigned the chair of president of the Royal Academy, and died 1792, aged 69. His remains were deposited in St. Paul's cathedral; and while his obsequies were graced by the attendance of men of rank and learning, the shops through the streets were shut up, so that the funeral of a private man for a while suspended the busy concerns of the first commercial city in the world. As an historical artist, Reynolds is best known by his deaths of cardinal Beaufort and Ugolino; but it is as a portrait-painter that his name will go down to posterity. In this style, he is the founder of a new school; wherein grace and dignity are made to supplant stiffness, and an attention, both in feature and drapery, to trifles. His colours have been said to fade, through his defective acquaintance with their mechanism; and he is considered rarely to have succeeded in delineations of the naked figure.

THOMAS GAINSBOROUGH, an English painter, born at Sudbury, Suffolk, 1727, was self-taught; and after trying his powers in delineating the scenes of the country, he came to London, where he acquired celebrity by the superior style of his portraits, and the elegant simplicity of his landscapes. He was of a very benevolent turn of mind, and it is said that he impoverished himself by his liberality. He died 1788, aged 61. As a delineator of landscape, Gainsborough has been called 'the English Claude,' uniting as he does the brilliant quiet of that great master with the simplicity of the Flemish school.

JAMES BARRY (1741—1806) was a native of Cork, whose genius early marked him for eminence as a painter. His piece on the legendary baptism of the king of Cashel recommended

him to the Dublin Society for the Encouragement of Arts; and he was noticed by Burke, Johnson, sir Joshua Reynolds, and other men of great public fame. By the friendship of Burke, he travelled on the continent, to improve himself in the schools of Italy. On his return to England, in 1772, he published an Inquiry into the Real and Imaginary Obstructions to the Acquisition of the Arts in England, and was elected to the professor's chair in the Royal Academy. About this time he proposed to the Society of Arts to adorn their room with paintings; which patriotic design was completed in the labour of seven years, and displayed the descriptive powers of the artist. The works in question allegorically illustrate the culture and progress of human knowledge. But Barry was an eccentric man, and highly irritable; and for endeavouring, against all interests, to force the appropriation of the Academy's exhibition-receipts to the formation of a gallery of old masters for the use of pupils, he was ejected from his professor's chair. He died, aged 65, 1806.

SAWREY GILPIN, born at Carlisle 1738, was apprenticed at fourteen to a ship-painter in London, where he displayed his genius by vigorous sketches of the scenes daily passing before his master's shop-window. Carts, horses, market-groups, were his favourite subjects; but at length he turned his attention to the structure of the horse, and delineated that animal with extraordinary spirit and accuracy. As an historical painter, his 'Triumph of Camillus,' 'Election of Darius,' 'Fall of Phaeton,' and 'Horses of Diomedes,' prove his genius: and a 'Group of Tigers' is thought to be his *chef d'œuvre*. His brother, *William Gilpin*, born 1724, and educated at Queen's college, Oxford, was afterwards possessor of an excellent school at Cheam, Surrey, and vicar of Boldre, Hants. He seems, by his 'Remarks on Forest Scenery and on the Picturesque,' to have been of a kindred spirit, and to

have *thought* as his brother *painted*. Sawrey died 1807, and William 1804.

JOHN BACON, while apprentice in a porcelain manufactory in Lambeth, conceived the idea of constructing models in artificial compost, and at twenty-three began working upon marble, and invented the machine now in general use for getting out the points of the model upon the stone. His chief works are the monuments of lord Chatham in Westminster-abbey and Guildhall, and the statues of Howard, Blackstone, and Johnson. George III. having on one occasion asked him if he had visited foreign collections, he replied in the negative: 'I am glad of it,' said the king, 'you will do England the greater credit.' He was born in Southwark, and died, aged 59, 1799.

RICHARD WILSON, son of a Welsh clergyman, became a celebrated painter of landscape. If he did not possess the invention of Claude, whatever came from his easel bore the stamp of truth and elegance; and his pictures now sell at a high price. He was a much-neglected man; and was compelled, in his latter years, to solicit the librarianship of the royal academy, of which he had so long been one of the most distinguished ornaments as an artist. He died, aged 68, 1782.

WILLIAM CHAMBERS, an eminent architect, was surveyor-general of the board of works, treasurer of the royal academy, and knight of the polar star in Sweden. He was of Scotch extraction, and was born at Stockholm, where his father was resident. He went at eighteen to the East Indies, in the service of Sweden, and brought back to Europe that taste for Chinese and Asiatic architecture which became so popular in England. He settled in this country, and planned the buildings of Somerset-house, laid out the royal gardens at Kew for king George III. (who knighted him), and built Milton-abbey, Dorset. His staircases, and his designs for the interior ornaments of buildings, have always been particularly admired.

He wrote a 'Treatise on Civil Architecture,' and died in London, aged 69, 1796.

DAVID GARRICK (1716—1779) was grandson of a Frenchman, and his father was a captain in the army, resident at Lichfield. David was born at Hereford, where his father was on a recruiting party, and educated at Lichfield school; but more attached to theatrical pursuits than learning, he acted with his fellow-pupils the play of 'The Recruiting Officer,' and supported the character of sergeant Kite. He afterwards resided with his uncle, a wine-merchant, at Lisbon, but soon returned to Lichfield school; and after being six months the pupil of Dr. Johnson, he accompanied him to London in 1735. He studied for a while mathematics, and then entered into partnership in the wine trade with his brother Peter, in Durham-yard; but a theatrical life was his favourite object, and after the death of his uncle, the Lisbon merchant, who left him 1000*l.*, and of his father and his mother, he now, without the control of superiors, indulged the favourite bent of his heart. His powers were improved by the conversation of the most popular actors; but Garrick, still diffident, fled from a London audience to Ipswich, where, in 1741, he performed the part of Aboan in Oroonoko, under the assumed name of Lyddal. His efforts were received with increasing applause; and thus flushed with provincial approbation, he came to Goodman's-fields, and acted Richard III., Oct. 19, 1741. So superior were his abilities, that the other theatres were left empty; and the house in Goodman's-fields was henceforth crowded with all the beauty and the taste of the town. This being viewed with envy by Quin and Cibber, they, by the influence of sir John Barnard, obtained an act to shut up the theatre of Goodman's-fields; so that Garrick, abandoning a situation where he divided the profits with Giffard the manager, made an engagement with Fleetwood, the patentee of

Drury-lane, for 500*l.* a year. Thus popular in England, Garrick passed to Dublin in 1742; where, in consequence of the crowded houses and the intense heat of the weather, a contagious disorder fatally broke out in the town, which acquired the name of 'Garrick's fever.' In 1747 he became joint patentee of Drury-lane, and in 1749 married mademoiselle Violetti, an Italian stage-dancer. In 1763 he went to Paris and Italy; and though some attributed this journey to a jealousy at the successful efforts of Beard in the management of Covent-garden, it was more probably undertaken for the restoration of his health, and that of Mrs. Garrick, who received benefit from the baths of Padua. He returned to London in April, 1765, so fearful of the public opinion, that, with a timidity unworthy of his character, he endeavoured to prevent censure, and on this occasion caused by means of a friend to be published, 'The Sick Monkey,' a poem; in which, by drawing the censures of animals on himself and his travels, he attempted to blunt the edge of ridicule. In 1769 he projected and conducted the Jubilee at Stratford, in honour of Shakspeare; which, though admired on one side, and ridiculed on the other, should be mentioned with commendation, as the homage of a great man to an immortal genius. By the death of Lacy, in 1773, the whole management of Drury-lane theatre devolved on him; but three years after he left the stage, and disposed of his moiety to Sheridan, Linley, and Ford, for 35,000*l.* He was seized while at lord Spencer's with a fit, and removed to his house in the Adelphi, where he died three weeks after, 1779, aged 63. Besides the display of his astonishing powers on the stage, Garrick merited the public approbation as a writer. The 'Biographica Dramatica' mentions not less than 38 of his plays, some of which were original, and some translations, besides a great number of prologues, epilogues, songs, and elegies. A mo-

nument has been erected to his memory in Westminster-abbey, and his life has been written by Thomas Davies. Garrick has never been surpassed on the stage for nature, variety, and facility of expression: both in tragedy and in comedy he was accurately true to character. His wife, a native of Vienna, had been almost adopted by lord and lady Burlington, after seeing her on the Italian stage; and they gave her 6000*l.* as a marriage portion. She long survived her husband; and after refusing her hand to various titled persons, died, aged 97, 1822.

SAMUEL FOOTE (1722—1777), called the English Aristophanes, was born at Truro, Cornwall. He was the son of a member of parliament, who sent him to Worcester college, Oxford. He then removed to the Temple; but the law was too dry a pursuit for his volatile temper, and he went on the stage. He appeared first in Othello; but his success in performing the character of other writers did not please him, and he commenced author and actor in the Haymarket, where in 1747 he first appeared before the public in 'The Diversions of the Morning.' It was at first opposed by the Westminster justices, as representing characters in real life, but was altered to 'Mr. Foote's giving tea to his friends;' and for upwards of forty mornings it drew crowded audiences. The next year presented 'An Auction of Pictures;' which met with equal approbation, though it reflected on the popular characters of the day. From 1752 to 1761 his success continued uninterrupted, and the little theatre, Haymarket, was now considered as the regular summer theatre, after the close of the other two. In 1766, while at lord Mexborough's, Foote was thrown from his horse, and fractured his leg in such a manner that amputation was rendered necessary. But, when he had recovered his health, he turned the misfortune to account, by devising characters suited to his maimed condition; and he so won the esteem

of the duke of York by the circumstance, that he procured for him a patent for life of the Haymarket theatre. His unwarrantable liberties however in the ridicule of public characters, subjected him to censure and prosecution; and the duchess of Kingston, whom he had traduced as lady Kitty Crocodile, obtained the lord chamberlain's aid to put an end to his calumnious proceedings, and especially to his reprehensible exposure of the involuntary defects of his fellow-creatures. Foote died, aged 56, 1777; and of all his numerous productions, the 'Mayor of Garratt' is the only one which can be said to keep the stage. In his private character Foote was respectable, and the wit and humour of his conversation were very powerful. Dr. Johnson, as Boswell relates, met him for the first time at Fitzherbert's. 'Having no good opinion of the fellow,' says he, 'I was resolved not to be pleased; and it is very difficult to please a man against his will. I went on eating my dinner, pretty sullenly affecting not to mind him; but the dog was so very comical, that I was obliged to lay down my knife and fork, throw myself back in my chair, and fairly laugh it out. Sir, he was irresistible.' In all his dramas, twenty in number, he borrowed liberally from Molière, but made all his own by his peculiar powers of humour.

EDWARD SHUTER, son of a sedan-chairman, was first a tapster in a public-house, then marker at a billiard-table, and lastly an actor. He was engaged by Rich in the humbler offices of Covent-garden theatre; but being a clever fellow, he soon assisted in low comedy, and at length rose to great popularity in characters such as Falstaff, Midas, and Justice Clack. It is singular that, notwithstanding his profession, he was a devoted follower of Whitefield, for whose 'Tabernacle' he obtained very considerable subscriptions. He had an inexhaustible fund of dry wit; and he was so prone to assist indigence in any shape, that he was fre-

quently, through giving surety, in the hands of bailiffs. On one occasion, when he thus suffered for his tailor, a plot was laid to release him; and this was effected by packing him in straw in a hamper, the party so emancipating him having brought the same hamper to the bailiff's house filled with bottles of beer, as if a present to the officer. They carried their burden to the theatre, which was then filled with spectators; and on Shuter's emerging from the straw, a sum larger than that for which he had been incarcerated was thrown from the house upon the stage. This singular character died, aged 72, 1776.

THOMAS AUGUSTINE ARNE, son of an upholsterer in Covent-garden, whom Addison characterized in the 'Tatler,' Nos. 255 and 160, was educated at Eton, and bound to an attorney; but he preferred music, and soon rose to be leader of the band at Drury-lane. He composed the music for Addison's opera of 'Rosamond,' that for Milton's 'Comus,' and that of Thompson's 'Masque of Alfred.' In consequence of his reputation, he was created Mus. D. at Oxford, in 1759. He was author of the favourite opera of 'Artaxerxes,' and Mrs. Cibber, the famous actress, was his sister. Among the songs composed by Arne is 'Rule, Britannia,' our second (though whiggish) national anthem. The words were Thompson's, and are in his 'Masque of Alfred.' Arne also revived 'God save the King,' which had slept since the Revolution, king William having regarded that production with extreme dislike; and the doctor first constituted it a popular song 1760, during the invasion of Ireland by the French. Arne is admired for that grace, ease, and variety, so remarkable in the modern productions of Italy; but he will live principally in his 'Artaxerxes,' a paraphrase from 'Metastasio' as to words, but, in the music, containing, by his skill, all the peculiarities of the Italian school. Miss Brent, the original Mandane, was his pupil; and that character is

now regarded as the touchstone of the pretensions of female singers aspiring to the first rank in English opera. Arne died 1778.

NICOLÒ JOMELLI, born at Aversa, in Naples, became popular on account of his opera '*L'Errare Amoroſa*,' after which he carried away the palm in most of the Italian cities. Disappointed, however, at the ill success of his '*Ifigenia*,' in 1773, he was seized with paralysis; and the only thing of moment he afterwards composed was his '*Miserere*' for two voices, considered by his countrymen his *chef-d'œuvre*. His devotional pieces are regarded beyond all others in the Romish churches. He died 1774, aged 60.

CARLO BROSCHI FARINELLI, considered the first male singer on record, was a Neapolitan by birth; and having studied under Porpora, 'the patriarch of harmony,' he came to London 1737, and was engaged at the Italian opera in that metropolis. Dr. Burney, in his '*History of Music*,' observes, 'that the musical powers of Farinelli had scarcely ever met before in any human being.' Visiting Spain, the court detained him to assist in alleviating the melancholy of king Philip V.; and while at Madrid, he became so universally a favourite, that offices of high emolument were obtainable at his solicitation. Various anecdotes of his greatness of mind and prudence under such circumstances are related, as also of his freedom from jealousy of kindred talent. He held the same rank of partiality with Philip's successor, Ferdinand VI., and till his death, and that of his queen Barbara, in 1759, he continued a favourite at court, and was deservedly respected for the generosity of his heart, and the condescension and affability of his manners. On the succession of Charles III. to the Spanish throne, Farinelli hastened to his native country; where, in the neighbourhood of Bologna, he enjoyed the rest of his life in dignified retirement. Though occasionally melancholy, he conti-

nued tranquil; the powers of his voice remained till the last, strong, clear, and melodious; and for three weeks before his death, like the dying swan, he daily entertained his admiring friends. He died 1782, in his 78th year. His great readiness to relieve distress, and to sweeten the cup of calamity whenever he found it possible, prevented the accumulation of riches; and Farinelli, after sharing the favours of monarchs without feeling his heart biassed by flattery, and after remaining unsullied by the vices and extravagance of a theatrical life, lived and died esteemed as a man of extraordinary virtue.

WILLIAM JACKSON (1730—1803), the most original English composer of vocal music, was born at Exeter; and after receiving a liberal education, studied music under Travers, organist of the chapel-royal, London. In 1777 he was appointed organist, lay vicar, and master of the choristers of Exeter cathedral; but though thus greatly engaged, he devoted much time to the sister art of painting, and many of his landscapes have been mistaken for his friend Gainsborough's. He died, aged 73, 1803. His '*Six Elegies for Three Voices*,' and '*Twelve Canzonets for Two Voices*,' are regarded as placing Jackson at the head of his profession for originality, melody, expression, and exact adaptation to the words. It was the author's rule never to write music for wretched verses; and he displayed much taste in selecting the most appropriate pieces for his purpose.

JAMES KENT, famous for the simplicity and harmony of his musical compositions, was organist of Trinity college, Cambridge. Few pieces of cathedral music that are not Handel's are more deservedly popular than his anthems; of which '*Hear my Prayer*' is considered a very surpassing production. Dr. Kent died 1770.

PHILIP ASTLEY (1742—1814), founder of the Royal Amphitheatre, near Westminster-bridge, which bears his name, was born at Newcastle-

under-line, and bred a cabinetmaker. In 1759 he enlisted in Eliot's light-horse, and served seven years in Germany; where he acquired the reputation of a good soldier, and became an adept in the art of horsemanship. On his return home, he began to exhibit equestrian performances; and in 1780 he erected a building which he called 'The Amphitheatre Riding-house,' and for which he subsequently procured a theatrical licence under the act of 25th George II., through the influence of lord Thurlow. In 1794 Mr. Astley went to the continent as a volunteer in the army; and this campaign led to the publication of his sensible 'Remarks on the Profession and Duties of a Soldier.' Besides the structure already mentioned, Mr. Astley built an amphitheatre at Dublin and Paris, and the Olympic Pavilion, near the Strand; and he died, aged 72, 1814.

JOHN ANDRÉ, was an accomplished British officer (born at Lichfield), who, while acting against the revolted Americans, was employed by his general, sir Henry Clinton, to conduct the negotiation with general Arnold, when the latter, who was on the insurgent side, had offered to yield privately the important position of West Point, on the Hudson, to sir Henry. Major André, on returning to New York, his post, with Arnold's agreement on his person, was seized as a spy; and when the object of his conference with Arnold had been made known to general Washington, he was sentenced to be hanged—not shot—as a traitor, October 2, 1780, at Orange-town. André was in his 30th year; and his death being regarded as contrary to the spirit of all existing international laws, since he had acted under a flag of truce transmitted to him by Arnold, then acknowledged by the insurgents as one of their majors-general, his remains were at length removed from America to Westminster-abbey, 1830, where a monument has been erected to his memory.

LLOYD KENYON, an English judge, was born 1738, at Gredington, Flintshire. On leaving Ruthin school, Denbighshire, he became an articled clerk to Tomlinson, a solicitor at Nantwich, Cheshire, and entered at Lincoln's Inn, and was called to the bar in 1761. Though known as an able lawyer, and much employed in chancery, he did not rapidly rise to eminence, till in 1780 he was called upon with Erskine to defend lord George Gordon. Distinguished on this memorable occasion, he was in 1782 made attorney-general and chief justice of Chester, and elected member of parliament for Hindon, Wilts. He was next made master of the rolls; and on lord Mansfield's resignation, in 1788, he was, by the recommendation of lord Thurlow, raised to succeed him in the King's Bench, with the dignity of the peerage, as baron Kenyon. In this office lord Kenyon endeared himself to the people as an upright and impartial judge, as the friend of his country, the advocate of virtue, and the unshaken punisher of vice, however great or powerful the offender. Though warm in his temper, he never suffered justice to yield to prejudice or passion, but regarded the strict execution of the law as the firmest bulwark of national honour. The death of his eldest son, in a decline, is supposed to have hastened his dissolution, by producing, in consequence of his broken spirits, the black jaundice; of which he died at Bath, 1802, aged 64.

AUGUSTUS KEPPEL, second son of the earl of Albermarle, became an able admiral. He accompanied Anson round the world, and when at the head of the channel-fleet, engaged the French under D'Orvilliers, off Ushant, 1778. The action was partial; and the next day, when the admiral wished to renew the engagement, he found it impossible. This encounter spread discontent as usual through the nation; and the admiral was tried at Portsmouth on the accusation of sir Hugh Palliser, the

second in command, but most honourably acquitted. But to show the absurdity of placing every want of success to the account of the commander (that peculiar sin of a large class of hasty judges in Britain), the charge was retorted by the admiral; and sir Hugh Palliser was consequently censured by the sentence of a court-martial. In 1782 the admiral was made a peer by the titles of viscount Keppel and baron Elden; and under two administrations was twice made first lord of the admiralty. He died 1786, unmarried; and the titles of Keppel and Elden became consequently extinct.

JACQUES NECKER (1732—1804), born at Geneva, was sent to Paris as a banker's clerk at 15, and rose to be head of a firm there. Some pamphlets he wrote on financial subjects occasioned him to be selected by Louis XVI. for his director of finances, 1776; and soon after, he was made comptroller-general. On threatening to resign the latter important office, because he could not, as a Calvinist, be admitted into the council, he was exiled, but restored 1788, on the outbreak of the revolution. It was then that he recommended to the harassed Louis a convocation of the states-general, a measure speedily productive of all the horrors it had been his desire to avert. At length, regarded by the court-party as a spy upon their conduct, he was suddenly dismissed the king's service, 1789; but being then in the height of his popularity, the strong voice of the public procured his immediate recal. His talents, however, were not adapted to the scenes of commotion which then existed; and becoming ere long the object of the hatred of that people by whom he had been almost adored, he with difficulty escaped to Coppet in Switzerland, where he died, aged 72, 1804. Necker's wife, and his daughter, Madame de Staël, were both talented persons, and very considerable authors.

PASCAL PAOLI (1726—1807), born

in Corsica, was son of a man of influence in that island, and educated by Jesuits at Naples; whither his family had fled on account of the disturbed state of their country. When the Corsicans had plotted to throw off the yoke of the Genoese, to whom their island belonged, they invited the younger Paoli, then 29, to become their chief; and on his accepting the offer, he was appointed to the supreme government, 1755. Having organized a plan for the conduct of affairs, Paoli opposed the Genoese with spirit and success; and after a contest of ten years, the latter entered into a treaty with France, and a body of French troops was sent to their assistance. Still finding themselves unable to subdue the revolt, the Genoese at length made a formal surrender of their claims of sovereignty over Corsica to the French government; and the duc de Choiseul endeavoured to prevail on Paoli to submit to the new arrangement, and accept of the office of commander-in-chief, under the authority of France. But he rejected all overtures of accommodation; and a much greater force than had been anticipated was found requisite for his subjugation. Fresh bodies of French troops continually arrived in the island; and overpowered by numbers, Paoli at last found it necessary to consult his personal safety by escaping to England, 1769; and there he received from the government, as a distressed monarch, a pension of 1200*l.* a year. Twenty years had elapsed, when the French revolution revived the hopes of the Corsican patriots; and Paoli went to Paris to thank the constitutional assembly for having admitted Corsica to the benefit of the French laws, and for recalling those who had been exiled for having sustained its independence. He was appointed military commander in his island; but having observed with alarm a proposition made in the French legislature to cede Corsica to the duke of Placentia, and lamenting the course which the revo-

lution subsequently took—having been accused also of treason to the French government—he put himself at the head of the malcontents, sought the aid of the English admiral, lord Hood, who commanded the Mediterranean fleet, and after some negotiations and warlike operations on a small scale, induced general Dundas to land on the island, 1794, with five regiments. The French troops soon evacuated St. Fiorenzo; shortly after Bastia surrendered, with a garrison of 4000 men, and then Calvi; by special negotiation, the island became part of the British empire; and a constitution being drawn up by an assembly of chiefs at Corté, it was agreed to by sir Gilbert Eliot (afterwards lord Minto) as viceroy of the king of Great Britain. But though the mass of the people were favourable to these proceedings, the French had still a strong party; and this was increased by differences which arose between the Corsicans and the English functionaries. Various incidents, trivial in themselves, widened the breach; and the English government, jealous of Paoli's well-earned influence over his countrymen, directed him to leave the island. Upon his departure, things assumed a more serious aspect; and the English at last determined on abandoning their acquisition, which they did in 1796. The French soon repossessed themselves of it, and have ever since retained it; and Paoli having returned to his exile in England, his pension was restored, and he died there much respected, aged 81, 1807.

HONORE, COUNT DE MIRABEAU, son of the marquis de Mirabeau, is only known for his active part in the French revolution. He was a dissipated and violent man, who having been disappointed in his attempt to become a deputy to the states-general, opened a linendraper's shop in Paris, and got himself elected representative for Aix. He for some time took a leading part in the assembly of the Three Estates, and set at defiance the

nobility and clergy who composed the two higher grades; but on a sudden he privately made overtures to the court, and in a short time after died suddenly, aged 42, 1791. Though buried with pomp, his remains were dragged from the Pantheon in the next year, when it was found he had been intriguing with the royalists, and burned with every mark of opprobrium.

WILLIAM HERSCHELL, the astronomer, was son of a musician at Hanover, and left the band of the foot-guards to come to England. Here he obtained notice by forming military bands, and conducting concerts, and at length became organist of the Octagon chapel, Bath. Being partial to astronomy, he constructed in 1774, unassisted, a reflecting telescope of five feet, and soon after a twenty feet reflector. From this period he gradually gave up the music of earth for that of the spheres, and was fortunate enough to discover, by the aid of his own glasses, 1781, a new primary planet, which he named the Georgium Sidus, in honour of the king. He ultimately settled at Slough, near Windsor, with a handsome pension, and commenced the erection of a telescope of forty feet. With this powerful instrument he discovered three volcanoes in the moon in the act of emitting fire, and he produced a catalogue of 5000 new nebulous stars, &c., which he had found out; on which Oxford made him a doctor of laws, and the king knighted him. He died 1822, aged 84. His planet is now called Uranus.

LUIGI GALVANI (1737—1798), born at Bologna, turned his mind from the cloister to medicine, and became professor of anatomy in the university of his native city. Always intent upon illustrating the new science of comparative anatomy, accident enabled him to make the discovery (which has immortalized his name), of animal electricity. Some frogs had been skinned to compose a restorative soup for his wife's use; and being placed on the same table

with an electrical machine, the leg of a frog, lying not far from the conductor, was undesignedly touched by a youth with a scalpel. The muscles of the limb were observed to be agitated hereupon with convulsions; and Galvani, upon repeating the experiment, satisfied himself that the convulsion occurred only when a spark was drawn from the conductor, while the scalpel touched the nerves. Subsequent inquiries enabled the philosopher to assert, that a peculiar fluid or principle, supposed to be secreted by the brain, is distributed by the nerves throughout the bodies of animals, and must be considered as the cause of muscular motion. The experimentalists of all countries were enabled to ascertain the hypothesis of Galvani to be correct; and animal electricity, or Galvanism, is considered to depend on the operation of the same causes that produce other electrical phenomena. Galvani refused to take the oath of allegiance to his French masters when the Cisalpine republic was established, and was deprived of his professorship, but it was afterwards restored to him; and he died, aged 61, 1798.

ANTONINE LAVOISIER, the French chemist, possessed an ample fortune, and devoted himself to science. Upon Priestley's discovery of dephlogisticated air, or oxygen gas, Lavoisier published his 'Elements of Chemistry'; wherein he showed its influence in the production of acids, and further illustrated his theory by the composition of water. To effect the latter, he burned together the oxygen and hydrogen gases; and the system was completed by his theories of combustion and oxidation, the decomposition of atmospheric air, and his doctrine of caloric, and its influence in causing the solid, liquid, and gaseous states of bodies. Meanwhile Lavoisier was a liberal patron, and kept open house twice in the week. So generous a citizen could not but be suspected by the sanguinary Robespierre; and, as one of the rich farmers-general, he suffered by

the guillotine 1794, at the age of 51. His widow, a very accomplished woman, married the eccentric count Rumford.

NICOLÒ PORPORA (1689—1767), born at Naples, was educated in music by the famous Alessandro Scarlatti, under whom he made a most rapid progress towards excellence. In 1717, came forth at Vienna his first opera, 'Ariane e Tesio'; the great success of which induced the emperor Charles VI. to become his patron. At Venice and Dresden he was alike successful; and in the last-named city he introduced to the public his pupil Mingotti, whose personal charms and musical abilities rendered her eventually so celebrated throughout Europe. In 1743 Porpora came to England, for the purpose of superintending the Italian opera, then established by certain of the nobility, in opposition to Handel; but although his efforts were worthy of his reputation, and supported by the talents of his great scholar Farinelli, their success was not proportionate to their merit, and the composer left London in disgust. He became afterwards master of the *Incurabili Conservatorio* at Venice; but died in extreme poverty at Naples, aged 78, 1767. Porpora obtained the honourable title of 'the master of harmony'; and in recitative his style is regarded as the model of excellence.

SAMUEL HORSLEY (1733—1806) was born in St. Martin's-in-the-fields, London, where his father was clerk in orders, and educated at Trinity-hall, Cambridge. In 1778 he succeeded his father in the living of Thorley, Herts, in the gift of the bishop of London, to whom he was chaplain; and he held also the rectory of St. Mary, Newington, which he exchanged for that of South Weald, Essex, in 1782. He was for some years member and secretary of the Royal Society; but after contributing much to the transactions, he retired in consequence of the dissensions which prevailed in that learned body,

and in which he took a zealous part, observing, as he announced his intention of relinquishing office, 'I quit that temple, gentlemen, where philosophy once presided, and where Newton was her officiating minister.' When archdeacon of St. Alban's he refuted the unitarianism of Priestley in so dextrous a manner, and with such unanswerable arguments, as to gain the respect and admiration of every true friend of Christianity. He was afterwards presented to Aldbury rectory in Surrey, by lord Aylesford; and Thurlow, the chancellor, was so pleased with his zeal in his late controversy, that he gave him a prebend of Gloucester, and in 1788 procured for him the see of St. David's, saying to the prime-minister, in his characteristic way, 'They who defend the church ought to be supported by the church; and therefore I think Horsley should be promoted to a bishopric.' In his diocese the new bishop increased the stipends of curates; and in 1793 he was translated to Rochester, with the deanry of Westminster, and in 1802 passed to the see of St. Asaph. He died after a few days' illness, aged 73, 1806, at Brighton, whither he had gone to pay a visit to his venerable patron Thurlow, whom on his arrival he found dead. Besides single sermons and controversial tracts in defence of the church establishment, and of the true principles of Christianity, bishop Horsley published an edition of sir Isaac Newton's works, treatises on Virgil's two seasons of honey, and on the properties of the Greek and Latin languages, together with a learned critical disquisition on the 18th chapter of Isaiah. As a speaker in the senate, he was eloquent, clear, and argumentative; and on all important national discussions, and especially when the hierarchical establishment of the country was mentioned, he generally delivered his sentiments, and was listened to with deference and admiration. As a preacher he was impressive; and though in his manner some-

what too dictatorial, his delivery was pleasing, and his enunciation distinct. His mind, it may be said, grasped all the learning of the ancient and the modern world, his heart was warm and generous, his feelings noble and patriotic, and his head capable and willing to serve the cause of virtue, morality, and religion. In his private character he was highly respectable; though irascible he was benevolent and humane, and his deeds of charity often proved burdensome to his income, and even went the length of distressing him in his pecuniary affairs.

EDWARD THURLOW (1732—1806) was born at Ashfield, Norfolk, of which his father was rector; and after passing the usual time at Caius college, Cambridge, he became a student of the Middle Temple. He was called to the bar 1758; and in the Douglas cause he displayed such abilities, that the public attention was turned towards him, as to one formed to fill the highest stations in the law. In 1770 he was appointed solicitor-general, and in the next year was attorney-general. He was now chosen M. P. for Tamworth, and became a warm and powerful supporter of the administration. In June, 1778, he was created a peer, as baron Thurlow, and the day following nominated lord high chancellor of Great Britain. This office he resigned in 1783; but on the re-admission of Mr. Pitt into the cabinet he was again promoted to the seals, and kept them till 1793. After his second resignation, he lived in retirement; and died, after an illness of two days, at Brighthelmstone, 12th September, 1806, aged 74, and a bachelor. Lord Thurlow's character as a lawyer is fixed on the firmest basis of extensive knowledge, quick penetration, correct judgment, and the most undeviating integrity. Though overbearing in his manners, he was zealously attached to his party, inflexible in his opinions, and loyal in his conduct. As a patron of church preferment, he was the friend

of persevering industry, and active merit; and though lax in his private conduct, he was ever anxious to reward virtue. In his court, with a powerful mind which quickly comprehended and discussed with clearness the most intricate cases, he pronounced his judgment by the strictest rules of equity; alike anxious to protect the rights and the privileges of the poor, as the immunities of the great. He was, as has been well observed, among lawyers and orators, in the senate, and in the courts, what his contemporary Johnson was among wits and authors, 'a mighty genius, proudly elevated above the littleness of common minds.'

JOHN WILKES (1727—1797), born in London, was son of a wealthy distiller, who gave him no further education than a dissenting school at Aylesbury could afford. He was then sent to Leyden for a time, to make a show of having been at an university; but he soon returned to England, with finished manners rather than a stored mind. In 1751 he married Miss Mead, a lady of large fortune, but several years older than himself. One daughter was the only fruit of this ill-assorted union, which did not prevent Mr. Wilkes from living a very free, not to say licentious, life. Having at length separated from his wife, he, in 1757, obtained a seat for the borough of Aylesbury, which much involved his affairs by the expense attendant on the election. He went into parliament under the auspices of earl Temple, through whose interest he was also appointed lieutenant-colonel of the Bucks militia. His early career in parliament was by no means conspicuous; but on the secession from the ministry of earl Temple and Mr. Pitt, in 1762, he attained a considerable reputation by some pamphlets against the administration, and more especially aiming at the earl of Bute. He extended his hostility not only to that nobleman, but his country; and by his famous periodical paper, enti-

tled the 'North Briton,' rendered antipathy to Scotland a prevalent sentiment in England. It is thought, indeed, that the effect produced by these papers hastened the resignation of lord Bute, which took place in April, 1763. In the same month appeared the famous No. 45 of the 'North Briton;' which commented on the king's speech in such caustic terms, that a prosecution was determined on. The home secretary in consequence issued a general warrant, or one in which particular names are not specified, ordering the apprehension of the authors, printers, and publishers of the paper in question. On this warrant Wilkes, among others, was apprehended; when, with his characteristic coolness, he asserted the illegality of the proceedings, and upon his refusal to answer interrogatories, was committed to the Tower. Some days after, however, he was brought by writ of *habeas corpus* before chief-justice Pratt, of the Common Pleas, who declared the judgment of that court to be, 'that general warrants are illegal;' and Wilkes was consequently discharged, amid the general rejoicings of the populace. Aided by lord Temple, he now brought actions against the secretary of state, under-secretaries, messengers, and every person employed in the transaction; in all of which he obtained damages, which were paid by the crown. But not content with this escape, he reprinted the obnoxious 'North Briton,' and thus produced a second more regular prosecution to conviction; and in the mean time, having fought a duel with a Mr. Martin, in which he was dangerously wounded, he withdrew to France. The result of his non-appearance to meet the prosecution, was expulsion from the house of commons. A second charge was also brought against him, for printing an obscene poem, entitled an 'Essay on Women;' and he was found guilty of blasphemy as well as libel, added to which his continued absence produced outlaws, and thus

the ministerial triumph was complete. He in vain made attempts to procure the reversal of his outlawry; but, trusting to his popularity, he ventured to return on a change of ministry, and to deliver himself into custody. Notwithstanding his imprisonment, he was elected to represent the county of Middlesex by a vast majority; and soon after, his outlawry was discussed at various hearings, and solemnly reversed. But this did not procure him liberty; and he was condemned to an imprisonment of twenty-two months, and a fine of 1000*l*. In 1769, in consequence of a pamphlet written by him in censure of a letter from the secretary of state to a magistrate, advising the employment of the military in repression of the riots which were the result of Mr. Wilkes's confinement, he was again expelled the house. This measure being followed by his immediate re-election, he was declared incapable of becoming a member of the existing parliament. Colonel Luttrell thereupon set up against him, and was declared the sitting member for Middlesex at the next election, although the votes for him did not amount to a fourth part of those for Mr. Wilkes; a decision which produced a great sensation, and offended even many of those who disliked the person thus opposed. In return for the loss of his seat, Mr. Wilkes was elected alderman of the ward of Farringdon-without; and in civic magistracy he displayed his usual spirit against what he deemed illegal authority. The house of commons having summoned some printers in the city before them, for publishing their speeches, they neglected to attend, when a royal proclamation was obtained for apprehending them: and when, on its authority, one of the printers was carried before alderman Wilkes, he, who deemed the apprehension a breach of the privileges of the city, discharged the printer, and ordered the captor to give bail. The lord-mayor, Oliver, and alderman Crosby,

acted in the same way in regard to two other printers; for which, being members of the house of commons, they were committed to the Tower; while Wilkes, being summoned to the bar of the house, instead of obeying, wrote to the speaker, and claimed his seat. The house was now sensible of the difficulty in which it had involved itself, and found no better expedient to save its credit than an adjournment beyond the day on which he was ordered to attend. In 1772 Wilkes was chosen sheriff, and in 1774 elected lord-mayor of London; and he knew so well both how to acquire and to retain popularity, that, on the dissolution of parliament in the same year, he was once more chosen member for Middlesex. In parliament he was a strenuous opposer of the measures which led to the American war, but did not render himself very conspicuous as a speaker. In 1779 he was chosen, by a great majority, chamberlain of London; which lucrative office, so necessary to his broken fortune, he held for the remainder of his life. In 1782, upon the dismissal of the North administration, the obnoxious resolutions against him were, on his own motion, expunged from the journals of the house; from which time, although in 1784 once more elected for Middlesex, he was never again notorious. He died at a box he had in the isle of Wight, almost forgotten, aged 70, 1797. Were we charitably to estimate the character of Wilkes by the good he effected, in common with such as, with a turbulent spirit, keep better men to their duty, as the bark of the worthless dog excites the watchfulness of the more trusty one, we should pronounce him one who had contributed to advance the wholesome liberty of the subject, especially in the matter of general warrants. And though his private life was a reckless and godless career, as has been too often the case with men of his temper and political views, and though he was so capricious even in things trivial, that one of his best

India, as governor of Pondicherry, to restore the French influence in that quarter, 1756. It was, however, soon evident that he wanted the prudence and disinterestedness necessary for so peculiar a situation; and after a little partial success against the English, in the first instance, he was attacked and made prisoner at Pondicherry by the latter, 1761, and brought in custody to England. Soon after his arrival, he was permitted to cross to France, on parole; whereon his countrymen put him under arrest, and tried him as a traitor, 'for having sold Pondicherry to the English.' On that absurd plea he was most unjustly decapitated, in his 68th year, 1766.

WILLIAM MASON (1725—1797), son of a Yorkshire divine, was born in that county, and educated at St. John's and Pembroke, Cambridge. He took holy orders, and became vicar of Aston, Yorkshire, and a prebendary of York cathedral. He made his debut in the literary world by his publication of 'Isis,' a poem, in which, as an admirer of the American revolution, he satirized the Jacobitism and high-church principles of the Oxonians; and he thus brought forth the spirited reply of the poet Warton, entitled 'The Triumph of Isis.' He wrote a tragedy, 'Elfrida,' and an historical drama, 'Caractacus,' both on the Greek model, but neither kept the stage; and 'The English Garden' is the only work by which Mason is now known. It has been translated into German and French, and, together with the invention of the pianoforte, has contributed to render his fame durable. He died, aged 72, 1797. (*See Pianoforte.*)

SOLOMON GESSNER, a bookseller of Zurich (1730—1788), became celebrated as a landscape-painter, and as a writer of pastoral romance. He was a man of virtue, and highly respected; and the empress Catherine of Russia sent him a gold medal, to express the pleasure she had derived from his writings. Of his works, which are in the inflated prose

style, a translation of his best, 'The Death of Abel,' is well known in England. The German original is remarkable for taste and delicacy of expression; but all such poems are written in error. The subjects of them are too holy for rhetorical amplification, and too awful for poetical embellishment. Gessner died a member of the council of Zurich, aged 58, 1788.

ANNE ROBERT TURGOT (1732—1781), born at Paris, studied theology at the Sorbonne; but instead of taking orders, obtained the post of intendant of commerce at Limoges. After holding the office twelve years with credit, he was made comptroller-general of the finances of the kingdom; in which capacity he effected many reductions in customs duties, and abolished many monopolies. His attempt, however, to reduce the royal household, and to deprive the nobility and clergy of some of their prescriptive rights, occasioned his dismissal, 1776. He died in retirement, aged 49. Turgot must be acknowledged, by his levelling principles, as apparent in his contributions to the 'Encyclopédie,' to have been one of the grand originators of the bloody revolution which speedily followed his decease.

FREDERICK BARON TRENCK (1726—1794) was a Russian military officer, celebrated for his sufferings under persecution, of which he has written an egotistical account. Having fallen in love with the princess Amelia, sister of Frederick the Great, Frederick imprisoned him at Glatz, under the plea that he had carried on a correspondence with his cousin, Francis Trenck, commander of the pandours (Hungarian infantry) in the service of Austria. Escaping, however, from confinement, he went to the court of Elizabeth of Russia; but being driven thence for his intrigues, he continued travelling until the death of his cousin, the pandour, left him in possession of a good estate at Vienna, 1749. In 1758 the Prussian government again seized him; and

he remained a prisoner at Magdeburg till 1763. The princess Amelia is said to have then procured his release; whereupon he married, and having lost great part of his property, was permitted, after an exile of forty-two years, to return to Prussia, 1787. The publication of his memoirs soon after this made a great stir in Paris; where his figure in wax, and a play on the subject of his sufferings, long amused the public. When the French revolution broke out, Trenck became its warm partisan; but being suspected of acting as a spy for the Prussians, he was guillotined during the 'reign of terror,' 1794, at the age of 68.

JOSEPH HAYDN (1732—1809) was son of a poor Austrian wheelwright of Rohrau. Though humble, his parents, like most Germans, were musical, and had little concerts on Sunday afternoons, wherein their son, when five years old, affected to join, with two pieces of wood cut in imitation of a violin and bow. The accuracy with which his motions kept time, attracted the notice of a cousin, a schoolmaster, and good musician, who made an offer, which was readily accepted, to take the child into his house as a scholar. Under the friendly roof of that kinsman he learned music as an art, soon became capable of using a real violin, and acquired some knowledge of Latin. He was also taught to sing in the parish-church, where he was heard by Herr Reuter, kapellmeister of the cathedral of St. Stephen at Vienna (who was travelling in search of boys for the use of his choir) and immediately engaged as a chorister in the metropolitan church of the empire. Such was the opening into life of the father of modern orchestral music. Having instructed himself in the theory of his divine art, by means of Fuch's admirable work on 'Counterpoint,' he rapidly overcame the difficulties usually in the way of a young composer; and, so far accomplished, he obtained an introduction to the famous Porpora, who was living at the time in the hotel of the ambassador from Venice.

By paying assiduous attention to the old musician, he gained much knowledge from him, particularly in singing; in which he made such progress, that the ambassador, having heard him, took him into his service, and bestowed on him a trifling salary. But at the age of seventeen his soprano voice left him, and with it the present means of living. His father could render him no assistance; and, sorely distressed, he was offered an asylum in the house of Keller, a wig-maker, who had often been charmed by his vocal powers. In this obscurity Haydn was enabled to pursue his studies; and his residence with the friendly tradesman powerfully influenced his future domestic life. Keller had a daughter, who was offered to the young musician in marriage; and he married her, but the union did not contribute to the happiness of either party, and ended in a speedy separation. Through the poet Metastasio, to whose niece he gave instruction, Haydn was made known to count Martzin, a noble patron of music, into whose service he entered in 1759; and hence, in 1761, he passed into that of the wealthy prince Esterhazy, to whom he remained attached, as maestro di cappella, to the end of his life. Comfortably settled in the palace of Eisenstadt, in Hungary, enjoying in moderation his favourite diversions of hunting and fishing, and relieved from all care concerning the future, Haydn there composed many of his great works, under advantages which few artists have possessed. He had for instance a complete and choice band living under the same roof with him, and at his command every hour in the day; he had only to order, and they were ready to try the effect of any piece, or even of any passage, that, quietly seated in his study, he might commit to paper. Thus at leisure, he heard, corrected, and refined whatever he conceived; and he never sent forth his compositions till they were in a state to challenge criticism. In 1791 the composer came

to England, to assist at Salomon's series of concerts at the Hanover-square rooms; and his twelve grand symphonies there produced, at once astonished the musical world. His two sets of English canzonets soon followed; and even at this hour they are unsurpassed for expression, originality, and propriety of accompaniment. His remaining six grand symphonies were composed during a subsequent visit to London, 1794; and on that last occasion, Oxford conferred on him the degree of Mus. D., and the prince of Wales, the duke of York, and all the higher classes, vied in showing him attention. It was in 1798 that he gave to the world his oratorio of 'The Creation,' his masterpiece, and, as has been acknowledged on all hands, the nearest approach, as a whole, that has been made to the illustrious Handel. Mozart vied with Handel only in flights. The composer was at the time in his 67th year; and the remainder of his life was spent in the enjoyment of a great and well-earned reputation, and of a small independence created by his talents. His death was accelerated by the bombardment of Vienna, his health being much reduced at the juncture; but it must be mentioned to the honour of Buonaparte, the leader of the invading army, that he issued strict orders that the abode of Haydn should be respected; and when the French troops entered the city, a guard was placed at his door to protect him from every kind of injury. He died, aged 77, 1809, and was privately buried at Gumpendorff, Vienna being then in possession of the French.

JOHANN CHRYSOSTOM WOLFGANG GOTTLIEB MOZART (1756—1792) was son of the sub-chapel master of Salzburg, and born in that town. At three years of age he displayed astonishing abilities for music, and before he was five, composed some trifling pieces. His love for the gambols of his age, soon entirely vanished; and for any amusement to please him, it became necessary to introduce music

with it. The elder Mozart removing with his family to Munich, 1762, the young professor, though only six years old, was soon afterwards introduced to the emperor, and played in his presence; and he next visited Paris and London, and attracted great attention in each of those capitals. In 1769 he travelled with his father into Italy, and met with the most gratifying reception. At Bologna, the Padre Martini, and other musicians were delighted at hearing him execute the most difficult fugues on the harpsichord, without hesitation, and with the greatest precision. Mozart arrived at Rome in the Passion-Week, and on the Wednesday evening went with his father to the Sistine chapel to hear the celebrated 'Miserere,' a composition of which it had been prohibited to give or take a copy, on pain of excommunication. Aware of this prohibition, the young professor listened so attentively, that on his return home he noted down the whole piece. On Good-Friday the *Miserere* was repeated, and young Mozart was again present; and, during this second performance, he held his manuscript in his hat, and was thus enabled to make the necessary corrections. From Rome the family continued their journey to Naples, whence, after a short stay they returned; and the pope, who had much wished to see Mozart, now witnessed his great abilities, and created him Knight of the Golden Spur. In 1770 he was engaged to write for the opera at Milan, and produced his 'Mithridate,' which had a run of 20 nights; and its success astonishing the manager of the theatre, he offered him high terms to stay. For the Milan stage he wrote several other successful pieces; and when he had scarcely reached the age of 19, 1775, his fame had so risen, that he could fairly make choice of any capital in Europe in which to establish himself. His father, thinking that Paris would be most suitable for him, returned with his family thither, 1777; but having the misfor-

tune to lose his wife during his stay, and also taking some disgust at the style of vocal music recently adopted in that city, he brought the young professor away, 1779. Mozart subsequently indulged himself in ridiculing the musical taste of the French in a set of burlesque instrumental quartets, by bringing together all the striking peculiarities of their style with the most irresistibly comic effect. He next composed the opera of 'Idomeneo,' a work undertaken at the request of the elector of Bavaria for the Munich house; and it was at Munich that Mozart's genius, now fully matured, displayed its great strength and boundless resources. He was at this time five-and-twenty, and in love with Mlle. Weber, a young woman of great musical taste, to whom he was afterwards united. The stimulus given to his mind by this passion did not desert him through life. From this period his melodies grew more refined, his harmonies bolder, the design of his productions became exquisitely symmetrical, and his ideas subtle and recon-dite. Mozart at length left Munich for Vienna, where he entered the service of the emperor; and though but indifferently treated, he ever remained attached to that sovereign. Some vexatious occurrences at court, having, at one time, excited him to demand his dismissal of Joseph, a single word from his majesty, who really loved his composer, and more particularly his music, made him resolve to stay where he was. Mozart received, in capacity of chamber-composer, the small annual sum of eight hundred florins, for which no service was required; but the salary was never augmented. At one time he was legally asked, in consequence of one of those general orders of government so frequent at Vienna, what pension he received from the court? and he wrote back, in a sealed note, 'Too much for what I have done, too little for what I might have done.' When 'L'Enlèvement du Serail' was performed in 1782,

Joseph remarked to Mozart, 'It is too grand for our ears; there are a prodigious number of notes in it.' 'There are just as many as there ought to be, sire,' exclaimed the musician. 'The Marriage of Figaro' was a piece then much in vogue at the theatres; and Mozart was desired by the emperor to set it to music. He obeyed; and this opera was performed at Prague through the whole of the winter of 1787. Mozart went himself to Prague in that winter, and there composed for the Bohemians his 'Don Giovanni,' which met with yet more brilliant success. The music of this lastnamed opera was the triumph of dramatic composition; and the author, who wrote it merely to please himself, anticipated that the amateurs of Vienna would not be able to appreciate its merits. His expectations were effectually realized; for the opera was not understood on its first performance in that city, and passed without notice. The composer lived, however, to see justice done to his great work, although his health had now begun to decline; and in that decline came forth his 'Il Flauto Magico,' 'La Clemenza de Tito,' and a 'Requiem,' which he had scarcely time to complete. He died literally worn out by his genius, in his thirty-seventh year, 1792; and the composition of the requiem alluded to, in the decline of his bodily powers, and under great mental excitement, hastened his dissolution. He was seized with repeated fainting-fits, brought on by his extreme assiduity in writing it, and in one of them he expired. Mozart was in person short, thin, of a pale complexion, with an abundance of fair hair, and of a temperament eminently luxurious and voluptuous. The melancholy which characterizes his compositions is rather the feeling of one who has indulged passion to excess, and who seeks relief from the intensity of his happiness, than that which is produced by misfortune or disappointment. It is here that the great distinction exists between him and

other composers who have possessed, in common with him, an eye for symmetrical proportion, and a great nicety and correctness in the finishing of their scores. But whatever style he adopts, the daring ambition of a great master, whose thoughts will neither bear addition nor diminution, is evident. If he has not originated so much in the first principles of the art as some other composers, music at least owes to Mozart a stride, one and single, from mediocrity to perfection. No other musician has ever possessed so comprehensive a genius. In the church style he may be said to vie with Handel; in fugue composition with Sebastian Bach; he surpasses Haydn in the symphony and quartet; and he outdoes Glück in the operatic. The true fame of Mozart is, however, founded on his four great operas, 'Idomeneo,' 'Le Nozze di Figaro,' 'La Clemenza di Tito,' and 'Il Don Giovanni.'

THOMAS DAY (1748—1789), son of a wealthy officer of the customs, was born in London. His father died while he was an infant; but he was liberally educated at the Charterhouse, and Corpus Christi college, Oxford. As he inherited a good fortune, he did not purpose following any profession; nevertheless, he entered himself at the Middle Temple, and was formally called to the bar, 1771. As is not uncommon with young men possessed of good property, and under no restraint beyond what a sound education has put upon morals (in itself no mean restraint, and in certain dispositions a sufficient succedaneum for the loss of parents), Mr. Day became a theorist, and altogether an eccentric person. With a view to study mankind more completely, he took up his temporary residence in various parts of the continent; and having been disappointed in an early affection, he took under his protection two foundling girls, with a view of educating them on a principle of his own, in order to make one of them his wife. His

plan, which was kindred in spirit to some of the educational reveries of Rousseau, utterly failed, although both of the females turned out deserving women; but, with the strictest honour, he gave them small portions, and eligibly united them to respectable tradesmen. In 1778 he married Miss Esther Milnes, a lady of a highly cultivated understanding, and capable of conforming to the peculiarities of his character. Among other things, his principles led him to renounce most of the indulgences of a man of fortune, that he might bestow his superfluities upon those who wanted necessities; and he also expressed a great contempt for forms and artificial restraints of all kinds. He resided, after his marriage, in Essex, and attended meetings both in that county and Cambridge, in opposition to the American war, and in favour of parliamentary reform. But his political speculations, harangues, and publications, brought him exactly that species of disappointment which we can imagine the ruminating cow would feel on finding her mouth filled with ashes in lieu of cud; and, in disgust, he resolved to have nothing more to do with the reform of *men*, but to confine his labours to *children*. The world is not sensible of the wisdom of Mr. Day in thus changing his course, or it would not look with such utter scorn and contempt as it does upon schoolmasters; whose profession, sacred and all-important as it is (if we reflect an instant upon its responsibilities, its labours, and the beneficial results of those labours), is a by-word in the mouth, not only of the vulgar, but of the gentle. In an hour when wisdom perhaps first really dawned upon Mr. Day, then, he turned his attention to the rising, and as yet unpolluted portion of his fellow-creatures; and he began by composing books for their instruction, for instilling into them moral and religious habits, and for giving them a knowledge of the world. His 'Sandford and Merton,'

though based a great deal too much on Rousseau's æry foundation of education, is his best work written in this benevolent spirit; and its frequent reappearance is the fairest proof that the public still estimates his labours. Mr. Day's ethical notions had much the same spring as those of the late Jeremy Bentham, founder of the Utilitarian school; and there have not been wanting in any age persons similarly influenced by an overweening anxiety to render this life of doomed pain and peril, and consequently of probation, a scene for the development of the 'greatest-happiness principle.' We are sure that, in the main, the builders on this system are but as the sower whose seed fell 'on stony ground, where it had not much earth, and immediately it sprang up, because it had no depth of earth; but when the sun was up it was scorched; and because it had no root, it withered away.' So must wither away, so must fall, the rootless plant, and the tower without foundation. In the Quixotic exercise, however, of the *maxima felicitas* dogma, Mr. Day, true to the last to his maxim, and enthusiastic in his notions of universal benevolence, —forgetting, in a word, he was a frail man, and not a Deity—determined on riding a young horse which had never been submitted to the cruel usage of breaking in. Admirable satire this on the modern system of education; which, establishing the present as a *leading* age, not a directing and a disciplining one (as of old, in the time of Solomon, wherein he who spared the rod was sure to spoil the child), allows of nothing but coaxing, and trusting to honour and '*natural virtue*' in the training of youth. But to return to Mr. Day. A young break-neck blood horse, which had even violently resisted the efforts of the groom to force a small smooth bit into his mouth, was mounted by the benevolent gentleman. In a few minutes the rider was thrown headlong off upon the road by a sudden plunge of the animal; and by one

forcible kick of the same 'mercifully'-treated beast, his brains were dashed out. This sad catastrophe occurred in Mr. Day's 42d year, 1789. Mrs. Day, his amiable widow, received intelligence of the afflicting fact with horror, closed the curtains of her bed, which she never again quitted—for she had not risen when the accident occurred—and never again suffered the light of the sun to enter her room. In two years after, she followed her husband to the grave. A sad though wholesome lesson this to the hasty reformer; who, in the certain hope of erecting perennial institutions of excellence, ruthlessly pulls down the venerable piles reared by the wisdom, and on the *speude bradeos* principles of his forefathers. His castles in the air vanish, his bubbles burst; and he sees not only his own destruction, but that of those nearest and dearest to him in the world, the terrible consequence of his innovating labours.

THE LAST OF THE STUARTS.—These were the Old and the Young Pretender, and Cardinal de York. JAMES EDWARD FRANCIS (1688—1766), eldest son of James II. by his second consort, Maria di Modena, was born in London, and was only five months old when his father was dethroned. His mother fled with him thereupon to France, where Louis XIV. afforded an asylum to the exiled family at St. Germain's. At the peace of Ryswick, 1697, an attempt was made to insure the restoration of the young prince to the throne of his ancestors, which was only defeated by the opposition of his father, as William III. had agreed to procure the recognition of the prince of Wales, as he was styled, as his successor; but James II. nobly rejected the proposal, observing 'that he could support with resignation the usurpation of his son-in-law, but he could not suffer his son to become a party to it.' On the death of king James, 1701, Louis XIV. recognised his son (the Old Pretender) as king of England, by the title of James III.; and a proclamation in the name of the latter

was addressed to the English nation. No effective measures, however, were adopted in his favour. The death of William III. revived the hopes of his party; but nothing beyond unavailing negotiation took place till 1708; when a maritime expedition against Scotland was fitted out, in which the prince embarked, under the command of the chevalier Forbin. This armament, as shown before in the Scottish history, was compelled to return to France without even landing the invading forces; and the young adventurer (who now assumed the title of Chevalier de St. George), joined the French army in Flanders, and distinguished himself by his valour at Malplaquet. In the latter part of the reign of queen Anne repeated schemes were projected, either to secure the restoration of her brother at once, or his succession to the crown after her death; but they proved entirely abortive, although the queen herself had favoured them. On the treaty of Utrecht taking place, 1713, the prince was obliged to submit to a temporary retirement from France; and when he returned to Paris, he resided there incognito. Had not the decease of queen Anne been speedily followed by that of Louis XIV. in 1715, the invasion of Scotland in that year by the prince might have led to a very different result to that which actually took place. The regent duke of Orleans wished to maintain peace with George I.; and the British ambassador at Paris was informed of the projects of the Chevalier de St. George by the abbé Strickland, one of his agents, who betrayed his confidence. This rendered nugatory both the earl of Marr's attempt, and the prince's actual arrival in Scotland; and the latter, on his return to the continent, was compelled to seek a fresh asylum at Avignon, and then at Rome. The prince was in a few years after invited to Spain, when the disputes between the duc d'Orleans and cardinal Alberoni began, and was well received by Philip V.; but the visit

had no important influence on his affairs, and Rome again became his retreat, as it was his future residence. In 1720 he married the princess Maria Casimira Sobieski, granddaughter of the celebrated Sobieski, king of Poland; but the union was not attended with domestic happiness, and a separation was with difficulty prevented by cardinal Alberoni, then an exile at Rome. The prince took no active part in the expedition against Scotland under his son in 1745; and the latter part of his life was dedicated to the duties of religion, and to works of piety. He died, aged 78, 1766. CHARLES EDWARD LOUIS PHILIP CASIMIR (1720—1788), the Young Pretender, was son of the former by Maria Sobieski, and born at Rome. With the title of count of Albany, he travelled over Italy; and when the war commenced between France and England, he was incited by a party which always keeps about the claimant of a throne, to attempt the recovery of that of his ancestors. The disastrous expedition of 1745 was the result, as related in the proper place. On reaching France again, worn down in constitution by his exertions and troubles, new mortifications awaited him; and on the signature of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, two years after his return to France, he found himself obliged to quit that country. He then went to reside with his father at Rome. In 1755 the French ministers, in consequence of disputes with the English government, appear to have projected a new invasion; and prince Charles Edward, who went to Nanci at their invitation, held a conference on the subject with the famous count Lally Tollendal, and opened a correspondence with the Jacobites in England. The differences between the two governments, however, were soon after adjusted, the design of invasion was relinquished, and the prince returned to Rome. The court of France now, to make the prince some amends, negotiated a marriage for

him with the young princess Louisa of Stolberg Gødern; but this union did not answer the views of any of the parties concerned in promoting it. The prince had no children by his consort, whom he is said to have treated with great want of feeling, insomuch that she left him for a convent, and eventually found a refuge in the house of her brother-in-law, the cardinal of York, at Rome. The prince was twice in England, in a species of incognito; first in 1758, when lord Holderness, secretary of state, inquiring of George II. what should be done with him, the king coolly replied, 'Nothing:—when he is tired of staying here, let him go away.' The second time was on occasion of the coronation of George III.; and no attempt whatever was made to molest him. He died at Florence, aged 68, 1788; and his widow, the princess Louisa, soon after took up her residence with her favourite, the talented Alfieri; and having survived him some years, she married privately Fabre, an historical painter, and died in 1824. HENRY BENEDICT MARIA CLEMENT (1725—1807), actually the last of the Stuarts, was younger brother of the Young Pretender, and was born at Rome. Being intended for holy orders, the pope dispensed in his case with the ecclesiastical tonsure; but he declined ordination until all chance of his brother's success was at an end. Accordingly, in 1745, when the last grand effort was made for the restoration of his family, he went to France, and assumed the command of troops assembled at Dunkirk to aid the operations of prince Charles Edward in Great Britain; but the news of the battle of Culloden prevented the embarkation of this armament, and prince Henry returned to Rome. The visions of regal splendour in which he might have indulged being thus dissipated, he took holy orders; and in 1747 pope Benedict XIV. raised him to the purple. He was subsequently made chancellor of the Basilic of St. Peter, and bishop of

Frescati. On the death of his brother in 1788, he assumed the barren title of Henry IX. of England; and on that occasion he caused a medal to be struck with the inscription, 'Henricus nonus, Angliæ Rex,' and on the obverse, 'Gratiâ Dei, non voluntate hominum.' The great events which marked the close of the last century had the singular effect of rendering the cardinal of York, as he was styled, a dependant on the bounty of the veritable king of England; for when the French had overrun Italy, he was obliged to flee to Venice, and was indebted for his support to a pension from king George III. In 1801 he returned to Rome, and became dean of the sacred college; and he died in the capitol, aged 82, 1807. The Theban house of Laius was among the most unfortunate of ancient regal families; but that of Stuart was, in modern annals, assuredly beyond comparison unhappy. The first Stuart was Robert II.; and his son, Robert III. died of grief for the captivity of his son by our Henry IV. That son, James I., after spending his youth in imprisonment, was slain by his own people. James II. was killed accidentally by the plug of a cannon; James III. fell in a civil commotion, and James IV. at the battle of Flodden. James V. died of a broken heart; and his daughter Mary, and her grandson, Charles I., perished on the scaffold. Charles II. passed his youth in exile; and James II. was driven from his kingdom, to die in a foreign land. Of course there are still existing descendants of the Stuart family, in a collateral way; and it has been facetiously said, 'that a cousin of queen Anne is to be found in every family of maiden ladies in every cathedral town in the kingdom.'

SEBASTIAN CARVALHO MELLO, MARQUIS DE POMBAL (1709—1782), born at Soura, in Portugal, was the son of M. Carvalho, and quitted the study of the law at Coimbra, to enter the royal guards, 1728. His violent temper led him into quarrels with

his superiors in command; and he quitted the service, and married a lady of a noble family, against that family's wish. A second introduction at court induced João V. to send him ambassador to the court of St. James's, 1739; and he remained in that capacity in England until 1745, studying English law, habits, and plans of commerce. On his return to Portugal, he held a place in the ministry, and laboured to force the English system of commerce on his nation; but his despotic conduct gave offence to the mercantile portion of the people, and he was sent to Vienna to adjust a dispute between pope Benedict XIV. and the empress Maria Theresa, relative to the patriarchate of Aquileia. His wife dying, he now married the young countess Von Daun, niece of the celebrated marshal Daun; and this union established his ascendancy over the queen of Portugal, who was of the Austrian house. On the death of king John, 1750, she induced her son, Jossé I., to appoint M. Carvalho secretary for foreign affairs; and his first object, when thus again in power, was to carry out his former intentions regarding commerce. But as he, at the same time, displayed a marked enmity to the influential order of the Jesuits, against whom he raised the irreligious portion of the nation to invent the most horrible charges, and systematically endeavoured to deprive the nobility of their privileges, a spirit of opposition arose to his measures, which led to many public disasters. He was, however, enabled to carry some of his plans into execution, and was proceeding to prosecute them effectually, when some interruption occurred through the dreadful earthquake at Lisbon, 1755. On this occasion he displayed the most active benevolence towards the distressed citizens, and did every thing in his power to relieve their sufferings and necessities. His services procured him deserved respect, and the king rewarded him with the title of count d'Oeyras.

In the following year he was made prime minister; and he thereupon assumed a most unlimited power in every department of the state. Now created marquis of Pombal, he was at the highest elevation of his career. Although excuses have been set up for his subsequent extraordinary tyranny, which led him to destroy what he called 'existing abuses' without the slightest regard for prescription, life, or property, and to invent charges against any person whom he was determined to immolate, we can acknowledge no conduct even in a political minister, which is not based on religion and justice. Expediency and necessity were, as is usual, the constant pleas of Pombal for his iniquities; and thus, when he wished to drive the Jesuits from Portugal, he associated every crime that occurred in the country with their name. All who opposed his scheme were concerned in some plot with them to assassinate the sovereign, and overthrow the (his) government; and the duke d'Aveiro, and others of the aristocracy, were put to death 1758, as the mere tools of those fathers. At length the great courtesan of the French court, Madame de Pompadour, because a Jesuit blamed her erroneous life, and the free-thinking Portuguese minister, because another had boldly enumerated his impieties, succeeded in inducing their respective sovereigns to expel the disciples of Loyola from the two countries. Pombal was still adding to the number of his enemies by his harsh fiscal regulations, and his aggressions upon the nobles, when king Joseph died, and was succeeded by his daughter, Maria Isabel I., 1777; and from that hour his influence rapidly declined. In 1780, so powerful had become the party which his own tyranny had raised against him, that the queen and her husband Dom Pedro dismissed him summarily and in harsh terms; and he thereupon retired to his seat at Pombal, and died there, aged 73, 1782.

CONTEMPORARIES.—THOMAS PEN-

NANT (1726—1793), born at Downing, Flintshire, studied at Queen's college, Oxford, and then at Oriel; but left the university, as was then usual with commoners, without a degree. Succeeding to a good paternal estate, he devoted his time to antiquities and natural history, and produced many interesting works, of which his 'British Zoology' is the principal. Mr. Pennant (a very amiable character, and the true English gentleman in hospitality) died at his native seat Downing, aged 67. THE MELMORNS were father and son, and both named William. The former (1666—1743) was a bencher of Lincoln's-inn, and is known for his treatise on 'The Great Importance of a Religious Life,' a work of the most benevolent tendency. William the younger (1710--1799) distinguished himself as the elegant translator of Pliny's and Cicero's epistles, and as the author of 'Fitzosborne's Letters,' and of a life of his father. JAMES HARRIS (1709—1780), son of a sister of lord Shaftesbury, was born at Salisbury; and after an education at the grammar-school there, entered at Wadham college, Oxford, but took no degree. He was member for Christchurch in several parliaments; in 1763 was made one of the lords of the admiralty, and then of the treasury; and in 1774 was appointed secretary and comptroller to the queen; which office he retained till his death, at the age of 71, 1780. Mr. Harris is known as an elegant scholar, by his 'Hermes, or a philosophical Inquiry concerning Universal Grammar;' which, with his other works, has been edited by his son and biographer lord Malmesbury. HESTER CHAPONE, born at Twywell, Northamptonshire, the daughter of Mr. Mulso, became the wife of a gentleman in the law; who leaving her a widow in poor circumstances in less than a year after their marriage, she was compelled to apply to her pen for support. Her chief work is 'Letters on the Improvement of the Mind;' a production distin-

guished for its piety and good sense, and which, with Mrs. West's Letters, and Baron Haller's, form an admirable didactic library for young ladies. Mrs. Chapone died, aged 74, 1801. ELIZABETH CARTER, the daughter of Dr. Carter, a clergyman, was born at Deal; and her talents were cultivated by her father, who instructed her in the learned languages. As a specimen of her erudition, she published the works of Epictetus with an elegant translation, notes, and a learned introduction; contributed two papers to the Rambler, Nos. 44, on religion and superstition, and 100, on modish pleasure; and in all her productions, poetical and other, displayed great simplicity of sentiment, and the purest morality. She was noticed by the royal family, and archbishop Secker; and her friendship with Mrs. Chapone and Miss Talbot were productive of the highest benefit to the two. She died, aged 89, 1806. CATHERINE TALBOT, sister of lord chancellor Talbot, lost her father early; and thereupon, with her mother, went to reside in the family of Mr. (afterwards archbishop) Secker, from which they never afterwards separated. Thus situated, Miss Talbot received an excellent education, which she much improved by her own subsequent application; and at the archbishop's decease 1768, she with her parent removed to a house of their own, and soon after, by invitation, entered the family of the marchioness de Grey at Richmond, where Miss Talbot died of cancer, aged 48, 1780. This amiable person is well known for her 'Essays,' 'Reflections on the Seven Days of the Week,' and other sensible and pious productions. THE BOWDLERS. This family has been prolific of authors. THOMAS BOWDLER (1754—1825), son of a physician at Bath, who had written on politics, after travelling on the continent, retired from the profession, and resided first in the isle of Wight, and then at Swansea, where he died 1825, aged 71. He became known by expurgated editions of Shakspeare and of

Gibbon's Decline and Fall. JANE, sister of Thomas (1742—1784), was an elegant poet and essay-writer. HANNAH, another sister (still living) has published poems, sermons, and the life of Miss Elizabeth Smith, a young lady whose knowledge of Greek and Hebrew was very extensive, as well as of modern oriental tongues, and whose taste for languages seemed intuitive. Miss Smith died of decline 1806. JOHN, nephew of Thomas (1798—1815), died while a student of law at Lincoln's-inn, and was author both of poems and theological tracts. VAUCANSON (1709—1780) born in France, became celebrated for his mechanical contrivances and invention of automata. His most curious productions were two ducks, which not only picked up their corn from a trough, but actually *digested* it, like the living bird; a figure of Pan, which, at the beck of Syrinx, rose from his seat, played on his pipe, waited for the applause of his mistress, and then sat down again; and an asp, which, on being touched by the actress who played Cleopatra, flew at her bosom with a serpentine hiss. Louis XV. employed the artist on a human figure, which was to do every thing but converse; but both sovereign and subject died before its completion,—the latter, aged 71, 1780. ANTOINE THOMAS (1732—1785), born in Auvergne, rose to great celebrity as a writer of eulogies, and became secretary to the duke of Orleans. His panegyric of Marcus Aurelius is considered his first production; but all he has done in this way is remarkable for elegance and propriety. He has usually been regarded very highly in France, where he died, aged 53. WILLIAM BERRY (1730—1783), born at Edinburgh, was apprenticed to a seal-engraver in that city, and became distinguished at an early age for the elegance of his designs, and the accuracy of his mode of cutting. To engrave the armorial bearings of the nobility and gentry of Scotland was but dry work to a genius like that of

Berry; and the carving of intaglios, comprising heads of Hercules, Cæsar, Mary of Scotland. Cromwell, &c., in the best style of an art which bears the same relation to seal-engraving, that historical painting does to the working out of portraits, was for some time his constant, though little-regarded pursuit. His productions became known to Piccler of Rome, the most gifted intaglio-engraver of the age; and that talented person, with the modesty of true genius, at once declared the Scotsman his superior. Berry even attempted figures *in relief* with great success; but he was little encouraged, and even his intaglios, valuable specimens of art as they are, scarcely exceed a dozen in amount. Seal engraving was that by which he supported his family, and that barely; and an anecdote connected with his pursuit of that branch is well worth record. Henry, third duke of Buccleugh, on succeeding to his title, was desirous of having a seal cut with his coat-armour, in 32 quarterings. London and Paris had been searched by his grace for an artist in vain, when some one named to him Berry of Edinburgh. With very little hope, the duke called one day at the shop of the artist, and, without telling his quality, showed him the impression of an old family seal, that had been executed by a foreign Jew, with the 32 quarterings, asking him at the same time if he could cut him such another? After examining it a little, Mr. Berry said that he could; and when the duke seemed to sneer at his ready compliance, the artist said with firmness, 'If, sir, I do not make a better seal than this, I will charge you nothing for it!' His grace, highly pleased, left the copy in Mr. Berry's hands; and the result was a seal, on which the figures were not only done with superior elegance, but the lines of colour were every where so distinctly marked (such lines having been wholly omitted in the Jew's production), that a herald could paint them with accuracy. This

able artist died, aged 53, 1783. *Intaglios* (from *intagliare*, Italian, *to cut into*), have the design indented or engraved by a sort of turning-lathe, in opposition to *cameos*, (from *kamara*, an arch, or raised body), in which the subject of device is raised. Even in the time of Moses, intaglios were not uncommon in the way of signet. The terms *cameo* and *relievo* are synonymous, though *relievo*, in painting, is often imitated by perspective on a flat surface. GOTTHOLD LESSING (1730—1781), born at Kamenitz in Pomerania, was son of the protestant minister there, and educated at Leipsic university. He was only distinguished while at college for dissipation and scepticism, and instead of taking holy orders, as his father had wished, turned play-writer. Obligated now to shift for himself, he went to Berlin, there became known to Voltaire, and subsequently to the Jewish philosopher Mendelsohn, and Nicolai, in conjunction with whom he became a writer of deistical periodicals. After accompanying general Tauenzien to Breslau as his secretary, he returned to Berlin on the conclusion of peace, and in 1766 published his 'Laocöon,' a dissertation on the limits of poetry and painting. He then became a dramatic manager at Hamburg, till finally patronized by the hereditary prince Leopold of Brunswick, who, when he became duke, 1780, made him his librarian at Wolfenbützel. His tragedy of 'Emilia Galotti' was once highly popular; and his 'Nathan the Wise,' a drama, wherein he displayed his final sentiments upon the difference of religious opinions, brought him a host of admirers. He died, aged 51, 1781. JOHN HAWKESWORTH (1715—1778), born at Bromley, Kent, of a dissenting family, abandoned the watch-maker's trade, to which he had been articulated, for literary pursuits. He married; and his wife, a respectable woman, having opened a school, gained a friend in a lady of East India property, who, admiring the talents of Mr. Hawkesworth, obtain-

ed him the then very important post of an East India director. On publishing a periodical of considerable elegance, styled 'The Adventurer,' archbishop Herring conferred on him (though still a dissenter!) the Lambeth degree of LL.D.; and he was thereon appointed to digest the narrative of the South Sea Expeditions, which he did with a reward of 6000*l.* though very unsuccessfully, —his forte being wholly to soar amid the 'nuages' of fancy. He died, aged 58, 1778. JAMES FERGUSON was a common shepherd in Banffshire, who, from watching the stars as he tended his flock, turned his mind to astronomy. Some rich neighbours enabling him to gain a knowledge of arithmetic and algebra, he visited London 1744; where his rotula to show the eclipses occasioned his election as a fellow of the Royal Society. George III. granted him a pension; and he then published many clever works, especially 'Astronomy explained on Newton's Principles,' which went through many editions. He died, aged 66, 1776. MOSES MENDELSON, the modern Jewish philosopher (1729—1785), was born at Dessau in Anhalt, and becoming transcriber to a rabbi of Berlin, got early imbued with the theology, jurisprudence, and scholastic philosophy of his nation. He was a man of great genius, and of singular nervous sensibility; and though born for controversy, if his mental powers be regarded, his physical excitability precluded him from entering upon its field. Consequently, when attacked by both Jews and Christians for his 'Jerusalem,' wherein he affirms 'that the Jews possess a revealed law, but not a revealed religion,' he replied to his assailants in letters remarkable for their pathetic remonstrance, and calm dispassionate reasoning. His 'Phædon,' a dialogue on the soul's immortality, in imitation of Plato, has obtained for him the title of 'the Jewish Socrates.' He died, aged 56. GABRIEL DE MABLY (1709—1785), born at Gre-

noble, was brother to the abbé Condillac, and related to cardinal Tencin, who employed him as a secretary. He subsequently became an *abbé*, or, in other words, a nondescript character between layman and divine, half protestant and half catholic; and he was then known as an author who absurdly attempted, in his admiration of the ancients, to apply their political maxims to the very different circumstances of modern states. His works nevertheless display both depth of thought and benevolence; and his best one is on the constitution of the United States of America. He died, aged 76. CLAUDE MILLOT (1726—1785), born at Besançon, quitted the Jesuits' order to become historical professor at Parma, under the patronage of the duc de Nivernois. He held the post with great credit several years, until invited by the prince de Condé to become tutor to his son, the unfortunate duc d'Eng-hien; in which capacity he died, aged 59, at Paris. His memorials for a history of Louis XIV. and XV., and 'Elements of Universal History,' are elegant and accurate productions. DANIEL BERNOUILLI (1700—1782), son of John Bernouilli, the learned mathematical professor at Basil, was born at Groningen, and, like his parent, became highly celebrated for his physical attainments, though he offended that parent, who was a rigid Cartesian, by adopting the Newtonian philosophy. Nine times he gained the premium given by the Academy of Sciences at Paris, and died aged 82. The manners of Bernouilli were as unassuming as his knowledge was varied and extensive; and many anecdotes are recorded of his simplicity of character. Journeying in youth, he met with a man of learning, whose curiosity being excited by the conversation of his fellow-traveller, he inquired his name. 'I am Daniel Bernouilli,' said he; 'and I,' replied his companion, with equal frankness, 'am Isaac Newton.' JEAN BAPTISTE D'ANVILLE (1697—1782), born at Paris, became celebrated as

a writer on geography, and as a constructor of maps and charts. He traced with indefatigable zeal the march of armies, and is said to have applied fifteen hours per day for fifty years in such studies: hence the superior accuracy of his maps. He died, aged 85. CHRISTOPHER NICOLAI (1733—1811), son of a bookseller at Berlin, after a collegiate education at Halle, assisted his father in his trade, and also became a celebrated German author. With Lessing and Mendelssohn he conducted a periodical journal called the 'Library of Belles Lettres,' from 1757 to 1760, which ran to 24 vols.; and with Abbt and others he afterwards published 'Letters on Modern Literature,' also in 24 vols. He wrote numerous other books, and died, aged 78. Among the published papers of Nicolai is a curious account of his own nervous suffering from spectral illusions: in other words, he fancied for some months that he saw numbers of his friends about him in rooms wherein he was really alone. Though at first alarmed for his intellects, he gradually surmounted his fears, sat boldly down in the chairs wherein the shades seemed already seated, and at length was troubled with such visions no more. Such depraved sight belongs to the hysterical and hypochondriacal class of nervous disorders. ROGER GIUSEPPE BOSCOVICH (1711—1787), born at Ragusa, entered the order of Jesuits, and was appointed professor of mathematics in the Roman college, before he had completed his studies. He occupied two years in measuring a degree of the meridian in the ecclesiastical states, for Benedict XIV., and in 1752 improved the drainage of the Pontine marshes. He was then intrusted by the republic of Lucca with the defence of its interests, in a dispute about boundaries with Tuscany; and having terminated the business satisfactorily at Vienna, he came to London, and was chosen a fellow of the Royal Society. In 1770 he settled at Milan, and erected the

famous observatory at the college of Brera; but on the suppression of his order, he accepted the offer of Louis XV. to become director of optics for the French navy, in which post he devoted all his leisure to the theory of achromatic telescopes, and wrote various physical treatises. In 1783 ill-health compelled him to resign his office and return to Milan, where he died, aged 76. **SOAME JENYNS** (1704—1787), born in London, completed his education at St. John's, Cambridge, but took no degree. In 1741 he was chosen member for Cambridge, and in 1755 became a lord of trade. His ample leisure he devoted to general literature, and he was a pure and polished writer. His 'View of the Internal Evidences of the Christian Religion,' written after a lapse into infidelity, is his best known work. He died aged 83. **THOMAS SHERIDAN** (1721—1788), son of the Irish divine of that name, was born at Quilla, near Dublin, and educated at Westminster-school, and Trinity college, Dublin. His father's embarrassments unsettled him, and he went upon the stage, appearing first as Richard III. at Dublin, 1743; but though successful as an actor, his attempts to reform the visitors of the theatre when he had become manager, and the starting of a rival house, ruined his affairs. He now gave itinerant lectures on elocution, was fortunate enough to obtain a 200*l.* pension from lord Bute, to whom he had dedicated a book, but was still obliged to avoid his creditors. While at Blois, in France, on the latter account, he lost his wife, Frances, the amiable and accomplished author of 'Sidney Biddulph,' 'Nourjahad,' and other tales of fiction. On his return to England, after Garrick's death, he became manager of Drury-lane theatre, of which his son, the afterwards celebrated Richard Brinsley Sheridan, was already a proprietor; but some disputes taking place, he retired from his post with disgust, and was next heard of as author of a valuable 'Orthœ-

pical Dictionary' of our language. He had scarcely embarked for Lisbon, with the hope of recruiting his health, when he died, aged 67, off Margate. It was Mr. Sheridan's curious and constant observation, 'that no advancement of his sons would please him more, than their being at the head of flourishing schools.' **JAMES STUART** (1713—1788), born in London, assisted his widowed mother by painting fans for her support, and contrived to visit Rome and study design. Mr. Revett, the architect, then at Rome, took him with him to Athens; and in that second seat of ancient arts he employed himself from 1751 to 1759 in making drawings, and taking exact measurements of its architectural relics. Sir Jacob Bouverie was then in Greece, and became the patron of Mr. Stuart, who, on his return with Mr. Revett to England, published jointly with the latter 'The Antiquities of Athens,' a beautiful work, which was continued in succeeding volumes after his decease. He now acted as an architect, was made surveyor of Greenwich hospital, and died aged 75. **DANIEL SOLANDER** (1736—1782), born in Sweden, studied at Upsal, and became a pupil of Linnæus. In 1760 he visited England, and was employed to form a catalogue of the natural curiosities in the British Museum; in 1768 he accompanied Cook in his voyage round the world; and in 1773 he was made under librarian of the British Museum. By his indefatigable exertions, a great addition was made to the plants and natural curiosities then known to Europeans. He died aged 46, of apoplexy. **JEAN BAPTIST ROME DE LISLE** (1736—1790), born at Grai, in France, studied at Paris, and went as secretary to an artillery company to the East Indies, where he was taken prisoner by the English at Pondicherry. On his return to France, 1764, he devoted himself to mineralogy, and, as the friend of M. Ennery, a rich amateur collector of medals,

published several valuable works on cristallography, and numismatology. Romé de Lisle died aged 54. CARLO GOLDONI (1707—1792), born at Venice, ran away from the college at Rimini to join a company of comedians, but was reclaimed, and went as secretary to the Venetian resident at Milan. In that city, indulging his taste for the drama, he published his first piece, 'Il Gondoliere Veneziano'; soon after which he joined some players again, married one of them, and returned to Venice. He now declared himself a reformer of the Italian stage; but while exerting himself in that capacity, he was invited to Paris to cleanse the French one, and became Italian master to the daughters of Louis XVI., with apartments in the palace of Versailles. He died in that capacity, aged 85, just as the Revolution was beginning. The dramatic productions of Goldoni (31 vols. 8vo) are all comic, and possess great spirit, truth to nature, and moral excellence. JOHN SMEATON (1724—1792), born at Austhorpe, near Leeds, quitted his father's profession of the law, to indulge his taste for mechanics. As a mathematical instrument maker in London, he obtained so much fame, that he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society; and when the Eddystone lighthouse had been destroyed, 1752, he was regarded as the fittest person to repair the damage. Of this astonishing work, completed 1759, he published an interesting account. He was subsequently made a receiver of the Derwentwater estate, which he greatly improved; and he was also employed in the great canal in Scotland, in supplying Greenwich and Deptford with water, repairing Ramsgate harbour, and in other public works—all the while improving the steam-engine, mills, the pyrometer, hydrometer, and air-pump. He died of paralysis, aged 68. PETER WALDO (1728—1803), son of a wealthy East India supercargo, was born in London, and educated at Cheam-school and Univer-

sity college, Oxford. Possessed of an ample fortune, inherited from his mother, Miss Dubois, an heiress, and a kinswoman of the celebrated cardinal Dubois, he adopted no profession, though his early propensity was towards the church. On succeeding to his father's estate at Mitcham, Surrey, he resolved to devote his days to learned ease; and he then entered into friendships from which emanated the great solace of his life. To relieve the distressed, to aid youth struggling with the world both with his counsel and his purse, to advance the interests of public charities, and private friends, were the labours of a long and peaceful life; and two works from his pen, 'A Commentary on the Liturgy of the Church of England' (of which establishment he was a warm friend, and worthy son), and an 'Essay on the Sacrament,' are still among the books circulated by the venerable Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge. Mr. Waldo had married Miss Smith, the daughter of a clergyman, who was chaplain to the Coopers' company, London, but left no issue by her at his decease, which occurred in his 76th year at Worting, Hants, to which village he had long before removed from Mitcham, 1803. His widow survived him 39 years, dying aged 101, 1842, not long after the decease in the same village (Worting) of the aged relict of the talented orientalist, sir William Jones. Mr. Waldo was the last male descendant of Peter Valdo, founder of the sect of Waldenses in the twelfth century. JEREMIAH MARKLAND, a learned critic, born 1693, was educated at Christ's hospital, London, and Peterhouse, Cambridge. He was first distinguished by his 'Epistola Critica,' 1723, addressed to Hare. He published also 'Statius's Sylvæ'—'Remarks on the Epistles of Cicero to Brutus, and of Brutus to Cicero'—and a 'Dissertation on the Four Orations ascribed to Cicero.' After being an active tutor at Cambridge, he retired to Twyford; but refused to take orders,

and thus lost the preferment which his friend, bishop Hare, intended for him. From the year 1744 to 1752, he resided at Uckfield, Sussex, and afterwards boarded in a farmhouse at Milton, near Dorking, in Surrey; in which latter retreat he died of a severe attack of the gout, 1776, in his 88d year. Some of his learned notes on the two 'Iphigeniæ,' and other Greek criticisms and illustrations, were printed by Dr. Heberden, 1771. LANCELOT BROWN, celebrated for his invention of the art of landscape gardening, first came into notice by laying out the grounds of lord Cobham. He was styled *capability* Brown, from his frequent use of that word in reference to the sites submitted to his arrangement. His object was to supplant the formal pleasure-grounds of the old school with the scenery of nature: he delighted in winding walks, running streams, and a succession of hill and dale, with a tasteful alternation of well-wooded porticoes, and sudden breaks into open and extensive prospects. His art was afterwards brought to still greater perfection by Mr. Humphry Repton. Brown died 1773, aged 58. JEAN ANTOINETTE POISSON, MARQUISE DE POMPADOUR (1722—1764), the mistress of Louis XV., was daughter of a small farmer, by a most vicious woman, his wife. The latter, after marrying her beautiful daughter to M. Lenormand d'Etisle, procured her introduction to the king, and thus led to her guilty elevation. Louis in 1745 created her a marchioness, settled on her a pension of 250,000 francs, and in 1745 gave her the singular post of lady of the palace *to the queen*, who seems to have made no objection to the appointment. Having a taste for the fine arts, which she herself cultivated with no small success, Madame de Pompadour induced Louis to promote their progress in France; but her cupidity and extravagance were unbounded, and her interference in state affairs was often most mischievously

exercised. To her intrigues the Seven Years' War and the suppression of the Jesuits were mainly owing. She died, aged only 42, 1764. ANDRÉ PHILIDOR, a music-master of Dreux, became the first chess-player of his own or any other age. He visited England 1752, to try his skill against some reputed chess-players, and there printed his celebrated 'Analysis,' of the game; but he still attended to music, and amongst twenty-one of his comic opera pieces, his 'Le Maréchal,' 1761, had an extraordinary run at Paris. He died in London, aged 69, 1795. IGNATIUS (BARON) BORN (1742—1791), a native of Transylvania, studied at the Jesuits' college, at Vienna, and then obtained a post in the mining department at Prague. Patronized by Maria Theresa, and her successor, Joseph II., he was appointed to arrange and describe the imperial cabinet of natural history, and made actual counsellor of mines; on both which subjects he wrote, especially on the amalgamation of metals. As a zealous member of the society of 'Illuminati,' he disgraced himself by attacks upon every person and thing connected with religion, and died, aged 49. JOHN REINHOLD FORSTER (1729—1798), born in Polish Prussia, became a preacher at Danzig, but removed to England, with the hope of increasing his means, and was made teacher of French, &c., in the Warrington dissenting academy. In 1772 he accompanied Captain Cook (as naturalist of the expedition) in his second voyage round the world; but he offended the captain and the government by publishing an account of the expedition, and was glad to return to the continent, where he obtained the professor's chair of natural history at Halle, 1780. He has left an account of new plants discovered in his voyage with Cook, and died, aged 69. His son, *John George*, who had accompanied him in the voyage, was professor of natural history, first at Hesse Cassel, and then at the college of Wilna, in

Poland: he next settled as a bookseller at Mentz, became president of the university there, and was sent as a deputy of the Rhenish Convention, to Paris, at the beginning of the Revolution. There he died, just after Mentz had fallen to the Prussians, aged 40, 1794. He was author of an account of Cook's expedition, and of works on natural history. **GEORGE FORSTER**, an English traveller, performed a journey from Bengal to Persia, and thence through Russia to England, 1782, in the character of a Moslem merchant, which his knowledge of oriental languages and habits enabled him to do without detection. Of this expedition he wrote an account, which is highly valuable on account of its information regarding north India, Cachemire, Kabul, and Persia, being the result of his personal investigation. He returned to India, and died at Allahabad, 1792. **GOTTFRED BURGER** (1748—1794), son of a Lutheran clergyman, was born at Wolmerswende, in Halberstadt, and during a life of dissipation, gave to the world poems of the wildest character, of which his ballad called 'Leonora' is a terrific specimen. In 1787 he turned lecturer on Kant's philosophy, and in 1789 was chosen belles-lettres professor at Gottingen. He died aged 46. **JUAN D'YRIARTE**, born in the isle of Teneriffe, became royal librarian at Madrid, and interpreter to the secretary of state. His archæological learning was extensive, and he has left us some valuable catalogues of Arabic and other MSS. in the Escorial. He died 1771. **TOMASI D'YRIARTE**, a relative of Juan, is known as author of 'Literary Fables,' and other poems, translated from Spanish into English. He was employed as a negotiator at the peace of Basil, and died 1798. **ANDREW KIPPIS** (1725—1795), born at Nottingham, became an eminent preacher among the dissenters of Dr. Doddridge's connexion, and for twenty-five years held the post of philological and classical tutor to the

academy founded by William Coward, Esq. in London. Dr. Kippis's chief work was five folio volumes of an improved edition of the *Biographia Britannica*; but the vast scale occasioned the undertaking there to stop. Dr. Kippis died aged 70. **JAMES MACPHERSON** (1738—1796), born at Inverness, studied at Edinburgh, and drew public attention by publishing in 1760 'Fragments of Ancient Poetry,' professed to be translated from the Gaelic or Erse language of the Highlands. A subscription being raised to enable him to collect additional specimens of 'national poetry' in the Highlands, he went thither, and next gave to the world 'Fingal,' 'Temora' and other poems, 'all from the verse of one Ossian, a Gaelic prince of the third century.' The controversy which ensued in the learned circles of Scotland and England on his alleged discovery was long and angry; and there are yet those who believe that the poems were not the fabrications of Mr. Macpherson, or that they were at least founded on traditionary Gaelic narratives. The promulgator obtained for his imputed discovery the lucrative post of agent to the Nabob of Arcot, and a consequent seat in the commons from 1780—1790, and died aged 58. **MARTIN MADAN** (1726—1790), born in London, left the bar for the church, and was for some time a celebrated Calvinistic preacher at the Lock Hospital, London, the chapel of which he originated. In 1767 he injured his fame by dissuading Mr. Haweis from vacating the rectory of Aldwinckle, which he had accepted under a solemn promise of eventual resignation; and in 1781 he lost most of his followers by publishing 'Thelyphthora,' a work in three volumes, wherein ('to prevent seduction by constituting it a virtual marriage, whereby the so acquired wife would be entitled to all the privileges in law of the wife honourably acquired') he openly advocated polygamy. His best known production, after that extraordinary one, is a

translation of Juvenal and Perseus, with copious notes; and he died aged 64. His brother, Spencer, died bishop of Peterborough, 1813. **LOUIS MANCINI, DUC DE NIVERNOIS** (1716—1798), born of an Italian family at Paris, filled the post of ambassador for France at Rome, Berlin, and London; in which latter city he concluded the treaty of Paris, 1763. He subsequently devoted his days to literature; and his fables, 'Dialogues of the Dead,' 'Imitations of the Latin and Italian Lyric Poets,' &c. form an elegant collection in ten octavo volumes. He contrived to escape the fate of his order during the revolution, and died at Paris, aged 82. **JACQUES MALLE DU PAN** (1749—1800), born at Geneva, was some time professor of belles-lettres at Cassel; but going to Paris during the revolution, and being detected in conveying letters between the king and his brothers, 1792, he had a French estate, which Louis XVI. had given him, confiscated. He was afterwards resident at Brussels, where he wrote a work on the French Revolution, and then carried on a journal in London, entitled 'Mercure Britannique,' until his decease at the age of 51. **DAVID RITTENHOUSE** (1732—1796), born in Pennsylvania, became known for his physical talents while in the humble capacity of a watchmaker at Philadelphia. His intelligence introduced him to the notice of the philosophical society of that city; and, after the American revolution, he was made treasurer of the state of Pennsylvania, and director of the mint. His geometrical surveys, in order to determine the relative limits of American states, gave the first impulse to science in his country; and Rittenhouse is regarded across the Atlantic as 'the American Newton.' He died aged 64. **JEAN MONTUCLA** (1725—1799), born at Lyons, studied under Jesuits at Toulouse for the law, and wrote a treatise on Constructive Testimony of great merit. [Though evidence in cases of treason may not bring home

to the accused any single act amounting to treason in itself, still it may have proved so many successive and cumulative seditions in the party, that the whole taken together may amount to the most flagrant treason; and though such constructive evidence is most objectionable, there have been cases wherein it has been regarded equitable to convict upon it. 'It is the first time,' said an English lawyer, in one of the state trials of Charles I.'s reign, to the lord chief justice, 'that I ever heard it admitted in an English court, that the stealing of 200 black rabbits would amount to a proof of having stolen one black ox; yet the accumulative evidence convicted the accused person.'] **MONTUCLA**, though sure to rise in his profession, suddenly quitted the study of jurisprudence for that of mathematical science; and eventually went to Cayenne as astronomer royal. His 'Histoire des Mathématiques' is a well-known and valuable work, highly creditable to his research and abilities. He died aged 74. **GUILLAUME RAYNAL** (1708—1794) entered early among the Jesuits; but preferring liberty to a cloister, he quitted the society 1748, and settled at Paris as a literary speculator and Abbé. On publishing, with too slender materials, 'The History of European Commerce with and in the East and West Indies,' he tried to correct the errors into which he had been led, by travelling over the continent and to England in pursuit of information; and as his book, with all its false statements, had established his fame, the speaker of the English commons, on observing him among the spectators, suspended the business of the house till he had seen the historian placed in a more commodious seat. He published a new edition of his work at Geneva; but, though approved for its greater accuracy, it raised the author a host of powerful enemies. He had indulged in severe language against governments in general; the parliament of Paris even burned his history,

and ordered the seizure of his person; and though offered an asylum by the sovereigns of Prussia and Russia, he retired to Spain, then made the tour of Germany, and eventually returned to France, and lived unmolested in the southern provinces. In 1791 he ventured to address a letter to the constituent assembly, in defence of the rights of property; and this, when Robespierre came into power, caused the confiscation of his property. He died in poverty, aged 86. JOSEPH DE GUIGNES (1721—1800), born at Pontoise, studied at Paris under the learned orientalist, Fourmont, and in 1741 was chosen royal interpreter. His fame is founded on his laborious work, 'L'Histoire des Huns, &c.' wherein he records all that is known of the Turks, Monguls, and other Tartar tribes. He died at Paris, aged 79. ALEXANDER GEDDES (1787—1802), born at Ruthven in Banff of catholic parents, completed his education at Paris, and was ordained priest of the catholics in Angus. He subsequently officiated in that capacity for ten years at Auchinhalrigg, in Banffshire, and became embarrassed in his circumstances through his zeal to erect chapels; but on extricating himself with honour and punctuality, the university of Aberdeen granted him the degree of LL D.—the first instance of a Romanist being so rewarded since the Reformation—though it was strongly suspected that the known disregard of papal authority by Mr. Geddes, chiefly obtained him that distinction. For his heterodox notions at Auchinhalrigg, he had been some time suspended by his bishop; and removing to London, he, with lord Petre's pecuniary aid, published the first volume of his new English translation of the 'Holy Bible.' Death put a period to his labours while engaged on the Psalms, aged 65. Immense hostility towards the author, from both catholics and protestants, followed the appearance of Dr. Geddes's most learned but eccentric work. Attacking as he did

the scriptural account of the creation, questioning the divine call of Moses, and theorizing every where against the accumulated authority and tradition of ages, he was regarded, as might be expected, little better than an infidel by the orthodox, and we think deservedly so. His work, however, gave a beneficial spur to biblical criticism in England; while the German 'rationalists,' Paulus and Eichhorn, regarded the labours of Geddes as beyond all praise. JOHANN GOTTFRIED EICHHORN (1752—1827), born in the duchy of Hohenlohe Oehringen, took holy orders, and became celebrated as a biblical critic. He is, however, chiefly known in England by his hypothesis relative to the origin of the first three gospels, which he regards as compilations from anterior documents. He is the Geddes of Germany; explaining away (as an ultra rationalist, and a promoter of the system of *logical* religion and morality founded by Kant, and of that infidel school of divinity, commenced by Michaelis and Semler, and extended by Rosenmüller, Kuhnöl, Döderlein, Rohr, Teller, Schmidt, Henke, Ammon, Steinbart, Wegscheider, &c.), all that is sacred in the holy writings, in the same way that Heyne treats the Mythology of the Greeks, however justifiable the labour of the latter. Eichhorn was long a professor at Jena, and died aged 75. The sect of 'rational religionists' is unhappily stronger than ever in Germany, and is constantly disseminating the principles of anarchy—fertile source and origin as it was of the bloody French revolution. NICOLÒ PICCINI (1728—1801), born at Bari, near Naples, studied music twelve years at the conservatory of San Onofrio, under the famous Durante, and going to Rome, established his fame by the composition of 'La Buona Figliuola,' which was soon performed in every musical theatre of Europe. After conducting the opera at Rome for fifteen years, he removed to Paris; and upon the production of his 'Roland' in that

capital, a contest commenced, one of the most celebrated in musical annals, as to whether the mixed German or the pure Italian school were the more original. Glück was then at the head of the former; and all Paris was divided upon the important question. Piccini returned to Naples on the breaking out of the revolution, and lived in comparative poverty till Napoleon, in 1799, invited him once more to France, and restored him his post of leader of the Parisian school of singing. He died at Paris, aged 73. CHRISTOPHER GLÜCK (1712—1787), born in Bohemia of poor parents, travelled on foot to Vienna, with the hope of getting instruction in music; and was fortunate enough to gain the patronage of a noble, who carried him to Milan. There lord Middlesex, then the principal director of the English opera, gave him encouragement, and induced him to visit England 1745. The Pretender's rebellion making every foreigner suspected, Glück returned in disgust to Italy; but he now became the reformer of the Neapolitan school, where the dialogue and business of the opera, as throughout Italy, had hitherto been little more than a series of unconnected scenes, serving as mere vehicles for the airs and accompaniments. His 'Orfeo,' 'Alceste,' and 'Armida,' were now produced, and established his fame; Rome, Milan, Venice, and Vienna, were alternately the theatres of his triumph; and he completely astonished the critical world at Paris, by adapting the French tongue to Italian melody (a supposed impossible achievement), as in his 'Iphigénie en Aulide,' with the text of Racine. The 'Alceste of Euripides,' and 'Iphigénie en Tauride,' in the same style, closed the labours of of this extraordinary composer. In the subsequent paper-contest of the Piccini and Glück party at Paris, when 'Etes-vous Picciniste ou Glückiste?' was asked of every one, Arnaud and Suard decided for Glück, and Marmontel and La Harpe for Piccini;

but the battle, from the equal merits of the rivals, proved a drawn one. Glück now retired for ever to Vienna, amassed a large fortune, and died, aged 75. GEORGE STEEVENS, son of an East India director, was born at Stepney, and educated at King's college, Cambridge. He became eminent as a dramatic critic, and his skill induced Dr. Johnson to take him as a coadjutor in the publication of his edition of Shakspeare's works. He died 1800. MICHAEL ADANSON (1727—1806), born at Aix in Provence, studied at Paris, and preferred the pursuit of natural history to entering the church. In 1748 he made a voyage to Senegal; and, in spite of the unhealthy climate, collected numerous specimens, which he classed in a talented manner. He wrote an account of this voyage, and of his labours, and in 1763 published his 'Famille des Plantes,' but being led to devote the large sums he acquired by those works to the collection of specimens for a most extensive series of books on his favourite science, he became embarrassed in his circumstances. The revolution began; and Adanson, when chosen a member of the Institute, declared he could not attend its first sitting 'for want of a pair of shoes.' He obtained a pension, notwithstanding the anarchy which soon prevailed, and died aged 79. Adanson rather boldly regarded himself as superior to Linnæus; and Haller has not scrupled to allow him that praise. MARI ELIEZER BLOCH (1728—1799), born of poor parents at Anspach, studied as a surgeon, and obtained the degree of doctor of medicine at Frankfort-on-the-Oder. He is, however, chiefly known as an ichthyologist; and his Natural History of Fishes, in 6 vols. folio, with coloured plates, is the best work that has hitherto appeared on the science. He died at Berlin, aged 76. DEODATUS DE DOLOMITUS was a knight of Malta, who, having killed one of his comrades, received sentence of death, afterwards commuted for that of banishment. Set-

ting at Metz, he studied natural history and geology; and his publications concerning *Ætna*, earthquakes, &c., making him known, he was invited by Buonaparte to join the other scientific persons of his suite in Egypt. On his return from that expedition, he was seized by order of the king of Naples, and imprisoned at Messina; but the good offices of Sir Joseph Banks obtained his release, as a man of science, though the hard treatment soon after carried him to the grave, 1801. JEAN BORDA (1735—1799), born at Dax in Gascony, left the Jesuits' society to become an engineer; and after serving at the battle of Hastenbeck, 1757, was made inspector of dockyards in France. His discoveries in dynamical science, in reference to fluids and projectiles, made him celebrated; in 1771, he was sent by the king, with M. Pingre, to the South Sea, to ascertain how far time-keepers can determine the longitude of places; in the war between Great Britain and her American colonies, he, while in d'Estaing's squadron, made observations which led to very important improvements in naval architecture; and to his ingenuity we are indebted for the astronomical instrument called 'the circle of Borda,' or of reflexion. While a member of the National Institute, during the republic, he assisted in framing the new system of weights and measures; and his last labour was to discover the length of a pendulum, which should swing seconds in the latitude of Paris. He died, aged 64. WILLIAM HAMILTON (1730—1803), born in Scotland, was son of the nurse of George III, who, before his accession to the throne, made him his equerry. In 1764 he was sent as resident minister to Naples; and during the long period of 36 years he remained in that capacity, returning to England 1800. The greater portion of his diplomatic career was in peaceful times; and sir William employed his leisure in researches concerning *Ætna*, Ve-

suvius, Pompeii, &c. as recorded in the Philosophical Transactions. — When the French revolution began, he signed the treaty of alliance between Great Britain and Sicily, by which the Neapolitans engaged to furnish 6000 troops, four ships of the line, &c., for war against France in the Mediterranean; but Ferdinand IV. (king of the Sicilies) made peace with the French, 1796, without having taken any active part in the contest. On this occasion, and in the subsequent events of 1798 and 1799, when the court emigrated to Sicily, sir William acted but a secondary political part, and was recalled soon after. He died, aged 73, 1803; and his unrivalled collection of antique vases was bought by parliament for the British Museum. WILLIAM GEORGE HAMILTON (1729—1796), son of a London barrister, was called 'single speech Hamilton,' on account of the great impression made by his only oration in the house of commons. He had been educated at Oriel college, Oxford, and eventually became chancellor of the Exchequer in Ireland. The letters of Junius were long thought to be his; but no important proof was ever adduced of such being the fact. He died, aged 67. PHILIP FRANCIS, son of the dean of Lismore, who lost his preferment on account of his Jacobite principles, was educated at Trinity college, Dublin, took holy orders, and established a school at Esher in England. He obtained the degree of LL.D. and is chiefly known as the poetical translator of Horace. He died 1778. SIR PHILIP FRANCIS (1740—1818), son of the preceding, obtained one or two government appointments when young; but in 1773 went to India, where he became a member of the council of Bengal. His opposition to the measures of governor Hastings led to a duel with the latter, who was wounded; and on his return to England, having obtained a seat in the commons, he took a leading part in the prosecution of the governor. He was made

a knight of the Bath, through the Whigs, and died, aged 78. Sir Philip was affirmed by one or two writers to be the veritable author of the Letters of Junius; but he always denied the truth of the assertion. GIAMBATTISTA CASTI (1721—1803), born in the ecclesiastical state of Montefiascone, became one of the academy degli Arcadi at Rome, and on the decease of Metastasio was elected laureate. His chief work is 'Gli Animali Parlanti,' an epic poem, greatly esteemed in Italy, and recently translated into English by Mr. Rose. He died at Paris, aged 82. PIETRO CHIARI, son of Giuseppe Chiari, an esteemed Roman painter, became court-poet at Modena, and composed numerous comedies for the Venice theatre, published in nine octavo volumes, as 'Commedie in Versi.' He died 1783. JOHANN HEDWIG (1730—1799), born in Transylvania, studied at Leipsic, and became assistant to Caspar Bose, the professor of botany there. Eventually settling as a physician at Chemnitz, in Saxony, he employed all his leisure in the study of mosses and other *cryptogamia* (secretly produced) vegetables, whose natural properties had hitherto been little investigated. 'The organs of fructification of the moss *bryum pulvinatum*' were discovered by means of a microscope; and this was a prelude to a further development of the structure of those members in other plants of the same tribe. Hedwig died professor at Leipsic, aged 69; and the result of his labours is extant in his 'Fundamentum Historiæ Naturalis Muscorum Frondosorum.' GEORGE FORDYCE (1736—1802), educated at Aberdeen and Edinburgh for medicine, settled as a physician in London: where he began the novel plan of lectures on chemistry, materia medica, and the practice of physic, and gave the matter of his subjects in his excellent 'Elements of the Practice of Physic,' 1768. He was chosen physician to St. Thomas's hospital, published some curious ex-

periments to show the human frame capable of bearing a very high temperature, and died aged 66. GEORGE STAUNTON, born at Galway in Ireland, early visited the West Indies; and, obtaining the patronage of lord Macartney, governor of Grenada, became his secretary. He was attorney-general of the isle at its capture by the French; so that, following his patron's fortunes, he accompanied him now to Madras, of which his lordship had been appointed governor. Having been instrumental in negotiating a peace with Tippu Saheb, in the governor's name, Mr. Staunton was, on his return to England, rewarded with a pension of 500*l.* and created a baronet; and when lord Macartney went as ambassador to China, sir George accompanied him as secretary of legation, and afterwards published an account of the mission. He died in London, 1801. JOHN TWEDDELL (1769—1799), son of a Northumberland magistrate, was born at Threepwood, and educated under Dr. Parr, and at Trinity college, Cambridge, where he obtained a fellowship, after taking high honours. He after a time entered himself at the Middle Temple; but resolving on a diplomatic life, he began travelling, with a view to accomplish himself for office, and died prematurely at Athens, aged 30. None of his collected materials, large as they are known to have been, have yet been published; but his 'Prolusiones Juveniles,' being his prize compositions at college, have gone through more than one edition. GILBERT WAKEFIELD (1756—1801), born at Nottingham, completed his education at Jesus college, Cambridge, and took holy orders. While a curate at Liverpool, he became a convert to the Independents, quitted the church, took the post of classical tutor in the dissenting academy at Warrington, and ultimately held a similar office at Hackney. He, however, divided from his adopted sect, on writing in support of the superiority of private over public worship;

and upon attacking the bishop of Llandaff's 'Address to the People of Great Britain,' 1798, wherein the prelate condemned the principles of the French revolution, Mr. Wakefield was subjected to a crown prosecution for libel, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment in Dorchester gaol. Though the sum of 5000*l.* was raised for the support of his family by his friends, the harass he had suffered brought on typhus-fever soon after his liberation, and he died, aged 45. Mr. Wakefield displayed great critical talents, as applicable to both the Scriptures and the classics, though with much singularity of opinion. This singularity led him to pursue what he deemed truth, let what would follow: hence his abandonment of both church and sectarians, and his endeavour to establish a new form of his own. To a similar love of peculiarity must be attributed his arguments against the use of animal food, &c. FRANÇOIS BICHAT (1771—1802), born at Thoirette, became medical professor at the Hotel Dieu in Paris, and displayed much talent in his various treatises on anatomy, the human membranes, &c. REICHARD BRUNCK (1731—1803), born at Strassburg, was educated among the Jesuits at Paris, and became commissary of war, and receiver of finances. He at length relinquished politics for literature; and settling in his native city, established his fame by publishing critical editions of Greek and Latin authors. His Sophocles and Aristophanes, as also his Virgil and Terence, are especially excellent. JACOB BRYANT (1715—1804), born at Plymouth, became a fellow of King's college, Cambridge. His pupil, the duke of Marlborough, gave him a place under him in the ordnance, and then took him as his secretary to Germany; and upon the death of his patron, he returned to England, and settled, as a literary man, at Cypenham, Berks, where he died unmarried, after having refused the dignified post of Master of the

Charter-house. Mr. Bryant's chief work is an 'Analysis of Ancient Mythology;' wherein he deduces the sacred rites and doctrines of the heathen nations from a corruption of the Jewish history and cosmogony. Although it would be absurd to affirm that the whole scheme of early scripture philosophy may be traced in the wild records of the Grecian poets, it is clear that many very striking incidents of the latter are but dulled and lack-lustre copies of the sublime and true narrations of the former; and it is always to be regretted that authors, who, like Mr. Bryant, prove too much, raise up a host of enemies to the truth, and even give a colour to the most glaring falsities. THOMAS BANKS (1735—1805), son of the duke of Beaufort's steward, was articled to Mr. Kent, the celebrated architect, but afterwards showed a preference for sculpture, and was sent by the Royal Academy to Italy, as one of its students. While in the land of the ancient fine-arts, he sculptured a basso-relievo of Caractacus brought prisoner to Rome, and of Cupid catching a butterfly, which laid the foundation of his fame; and on his return to England he was employed on works which made his fortune. His colossal statue of Achilles mourning the loss of Briseis is considered his best production. JOHANN ADELUNG (1734—1806), born in Pomerania, was educated at Halle, and was for many years librarian to the elector of Saxony. He was a most prolific author; but his chief work is a 'Grammatical and Critical Dictionary,' one as valuable to Germany as the labours of Dr. Johnson in this way were to England. CHRISTOPHER ANSTEY (1724—1805), born at Bury St. Edmund's, was educated at Eton, and became a fellow of King's college, Cambridge. On coming into possession of his family fortune, 1754, he married and turned country gentleman; and the latter part of his life he passed at Bath, where he died, aged 81. Among his poetical

compositions, the 'New Bath Guide' made an astonishing stir in the polite world 1766; pointedly satirizing as it did all the visitors to Bath, then the most fashionable place of resort in the kingdom. ANDREW DALZELL (1750—1806), born at Edinburgh, became professor of Greek in that university, after travelling on the continent with the earl of Lauderdale. His two selections from Greek authors, 'Collectanea Græca Minora et Majora,' are well-known and admirable school books. He died aged 56. LOUIS DUTENS (1729—1812), born in France of protestant parents, obtained orders in the church of England, and became chaplain, and subsequently *locum tenens*, of the honourable Mr. Mackenzie, the British minister at Turin. On returning to England, the duke of Northumberland gave him an excellent living, and sent him to travel with his son, lord Algernon Percy. He again visited Turin; and Mr. Mackenzie leaving him a handsome bequest at his decease, he was enabled to pass the rest of his life in learned leisure. He died in London, aged 83. Mr. Dutens wrote many works on art, &c., but is best, though not very creditably, known for his amusing autobiography, 'Mémoires d'un Voyageur qui se repose.' FREDERICK, BARON GRIMM (1729—1807), born at Ratisbon, of poor parents, became governor of the children of the count de Schomberg, and then reader to the duke of Saxe Gotha. While in the latter office, he became acquainted with Rousseau, who introduced him to his *château*, Diderot and the other French philosophers; and this, as might be expected, soon converted the teacher into the man of gallantry. As an user of cosmetics, to repair the ravages which time had made on his face, M. Grimm obtained now from the people of Paris, where he took up his abode, the sobriquet of 'Tyran de Blanc.' The count de Friese made him his secretary, with a liberal salary; he wrote in defence of the Italian opera; and becoming amanu-

ensis to the duke of Orleans, he was employed with Diderot to transmit to the duke of Saxe Gotha an account of the writings, friendships, disputes, &c., of the authors of the day. In 1776 he was made minister at Paris for Saxe Gotha, with the title of baron; but he returned to Germany at the Revolution, and there acted as envoy for the Empress of Russia to the States of Lower Saxony. He died at Gotha, aged 84. Baron Grimm is now only known for his posthumous publication of that huge mass of literary gossip and frivolity, which composed his letters to the duke of Saxe Gotha, before mentioned. PIERRE CABANIS (1755 1807), born at Bayonne, settled at Paris as a physician, and, during the Revolution, became one of the council of five hundred, and the partisan of Mirabeau. Under Buonaparte he was a senator, and died at Meulan, aged 52. His medical treatises on catarrh and on the state of medicine in France, possess considerable merit. JOHANN GOTTFRIED HERDER (1744—1803), born at Morungen, in Prussia, became first preacher to the court of Saxe Weimar, and counsellor of state. He was a copious writer on belles lettres; but is chiefly known for his works on ethics and intellectual philosophy, of which the most important one is 'Outlines of a Philosophy of the History of Man,' wherein he fancifully, and in the spirit of the new school of ontology, strives to discover a point of union where science, religion, history, poetry, and art should meet. To gain one comprehensive view of all the tendencies of man, he made himself acquainted with the literature of various countries, Asiatic as well as European; but it is questionable if his poem of 'The Cid,' and 'Spirit of Hebrew Poetry,' will not outlive his more profound productions. He died aged 59. PIERRE LACLOS (1741—1803), born at Amiens, became a captain of artillery; and in 1789, being then supernumerary secretary to the duke of Orleans, followed that prince to

England, but returned to France, 1791, to become conductor of a jacobin journal. Though often suspected during the revolutionary struggle, he escaped the guillotine, and, under Buonaparte, served as a general of brigade on the Rhine, and in Italy, dying at Tarentum, aged 62. As a novel-writer and poet, Lacos has been much admired by his nation; but his works simply serve to show the dissolute manners of the French, just before the outbreak of the great revolution. As a writer on engineering, his vanity prompted him to depreciate the talents of the great Vauban. Ponce Lebrun (1729—1807), the French Pindar, was born at Paris, became secretary to the Prince de Conti, the grand-prior, and held his post till the decease of his patron. Having been long celebrated as a lyric poet, he rendered his name notorious at the out-break of the Revolution, by celebrating the birth of freedom in various odes and epigrams; but, as the prospect darkened, he changed his note, and deplored in harmonious numbers the ruin of his country. On the restoration of order, he was noticed by Buonaparte, who pensioned him, and enabled him to close his days in competency. He died aged 78. MARC RENE, MARQUIS DE MONT-ALÉMBERT (1714—1800), born at Angoulême, entered the army at eighteen, and was at the sieges of Kehl and Philipsburg, 1733 and 1734. In periods of peace he devoted his leisure to writing on military tactics; and his treatise on fortification, wherein he labours to show the defensive to be superior in power to the offensive art, especially if supported by artillery placed on perpendicular works, obtained him the praise of scientific men. In the Seven Years' War he was attached to the staff of the Russian and Swedish armies, in order that he might report military operations to the French government; and he died aged 86. PIERRE MECHAIN (1744—1805), born at Laon, was early devoted to physical

science, and in 1772 was employed in the *dépôt* of the marine. He discovered the comet of 1781, and in 1790 calculated the orbit of another with extreme accuracy. He was engaged in the latter part of his life to measure the degrees of the meridian, the more precisely to determine the magnitude of the earth; and died aged 61. CHRISTIANN PFEFFEL (1726—1807), born at Colmar, became celebrated as a juriconsult and diplomatist. He was long at the courts of Bavaria and Versailles, acting on his own account as a juriconsult; and he was on a mission from the French ministry to Deux Ponts, treating of the indemnities of the duke and other German princes, when the revolutionary party in France confiscated his property. This determined him to keep in the service of the duke of Deux Ponts till the death of that prince; when he retired to Nuremberg, and died aged 81. He wrote a 'Chronological Universal History,' and other books of great authority and accuracy. THEODORE TRONCHIN (1709—1781), born at Geneva, was sent early to England, to be under the patronage of his maternal relative, lord Bolingbroke. After a brief residence at Cambridge, he removed to Leyden, under Boerhaave, and settled as a physician at Amsterdam, in 1730. Having laboured to promote inoculation for smallpox, he was sent for to Paris, 1756, to operate on the children of the duke of Orleans; and some years after he accepted the office of chief physician to that prince. At Paris he fell into the society of Voltaire, Rousseau, and their party; but he still confined his labours to his profession, and became highly eminent as a practitioner in female, infantile, and nervous cases. He was the first to enjoin the cooling plan in the treatment of smallpox; it having been the practice to keep the patient hot in bed, and without a breath of fresh air. Tronchin wrote treatises on female diseases, and died aged 72. CHARLES, COUNT DE COBENTZEL, born at Laybach in Carniola, rose as a diploma-

tist at the court of Maria Theresa, and was made chief minister of the Austrian Netherlands, 1758. In that high dignity he did a great deal of good, though much devoted to pleasure; and the academy of sciences at Brussels was his foundation. He retained his post under Joseph II., who had a high opinion of his talents; and indeed it was Cobentzel who carried out that emperor's plans of reform in both church and state in the Netherlands. He died at Brussels, 1770. *Lewis*, his son, also Count de Cobentzel, became a diplomatist also, and was in high favour with Catherine II. of Russia. In 1795 he concluded a grand triple alliance between Russia, England, and Austria, against the French republic; and he was the maker of peace with France at Luneville, 1801. He died at Vienna, 1808. *HENRY CAVENDISH* (1731—1810), son of Lord Charles Cavendish, was born at Nice in Piedmont, and completed his studies at Cambridge: though he was only known at the university as one engrossed by chemical pursuits. On leaving college he gave himself up wholly to physical science; and uninfluenced both by the calls of ambition and of milder passions, he devoted his life and fortune to the investigation of natural phenomena. He never married, never published, and died a secluded philosopher, at his residence Clapham-common, Surrey, aged 79, 1810. Mr. Cavendish is famous for his discoveries respecting the nature of hydrogen gas or inflammable air; and as early as 1766, he ascertained its extreme comparative levity, and thus originated the practice of aërostation. This was followed by his important discovery of the composition of water, by the union of oxygen and hydrogen gases; which, when mixed in proper proportions and set on fire, produce a quantity of water exactly answering to the weight of its aerial principles. On this fact depends the explanation of various natural phenomena; and the antiphlogistic theory of che-

mistry is almost founded on it. Mr. Cavendish, by his quiet habits, saw his property accumulate to 1,200,000*l.* before his death. *THE TWO DALRYMPLES*, sons of sir James, of Hailes, near Edinburgh. *Sir David* (1726—1792) was educated at Eton and Utrecht, was called to the Scottish bar 1748, and on being made a judge of the Court of Session 1766, assumed the title of lord Hailes. He was a copious translator and editor, and in his literary capacity became known to Dr. Johnson, who highly esteemed him for his very amiable character. His chief original work is 'Annals of Scotland from Malcolm Canmore to the house of Stuart.' He died aged 66. *Alexander* (1737—1808), his brother, went out as a writer to India, and there became famous as a hydrographer. He collected and published most that had been written on the subject of his profession, and was in 1795 made hydrographer to the admiralty. He died aged 71. *HUGH DOWNMAN* (1740—1809), born near Exeter, was educated at Baliol, Oxford, and, though ordained, preferred the practice of medicine. He resided some time at Exeter, as a physician, and was at the same time known as the author of 'Editha, or the siege of Exeter,' and other poems. He died aged 69. *THE CHEVALIER D'EON* (1727—1810), a Frenchman, alone known through his wearing the dress of, and being taken for a female, during 30 years of his life. He was born of a respectable family at Tonnerre in Burgundy, became a counsellor of the parliament of Paris, and also censor-general of belles-lettres. He then turned soldier; and after acting as aide-de-camp to Marshal Broglie, was sent as secretary of legation to London 1761, with the duke de Nivernois, and remained, after his master's departure, minister plenipotentiary. When subsequently superseded by the count de Guerchy, to whom he was required to act as secretary, as he had before done to the duke, he, in revenge, began ex-

posing some state secrets of his court ; and having libelled the count, and not appeared to receive sentence when found guilty by the English court of King's Bench, he was outlawed. It was soon after that he was seen both in France and in England in female habiliments ; and the cause of the singular change seems to have been the protection his own government afforded him for this eccentric conduct, which would give the lie, it was supposed, to his having ever been the depository of state secrets of any value. The French government were believed to fear the consequence of the chevalier's revealing some really important matters with which he was acquainted ; and they thus privately pensioned him to pass as an equivocal person, whom no one would believe. Though thus petticoated, the chevalier fought subsequently two or three duels, and long lived in London as a teacher of fencing. In that city he died, in comparative poverty, aged 83 ; and even his confessor was not aware that he was other than a female until after his decease. JEAN LOUIS DE LOLME (1743—1807), born at Geneva, visited England to study its principles of government, and became known by his subsequent work on 'The Constitution of England.' He remained many years in this country, getting his bread by his political works, and died aged 64, in Switzerland. His 'Constitution' attempts to compare our polity with that of other nations, and draws inferences highly favourable to the British system of legislation. Indeed it goes to show that seditions, which would overturn other states, would only tend to solidify ours. CHRISTIAN HRYNE (1729—1814), born at Glogau in Silesia, worked his way up the hill of life, and, though the son of a poor weaver, obtained an education at Leipsic, which, from his good abilities, rendered him an accomplished classical critic. Count Bruhl was his first patron ; and when the Seven Years' War had ruined that nobleman, he

found friends in the Von Schomberg family, and was at length appointed by our George III. tutor to his three youngest sons while at Göttingen university. His most laborious work was a catalogue of the Göttingen library, in 150 volumes ; but he is best known by his editions of Virgil and Homer. He died aged 85. EDWARD JERNINGHAM (1727—1812), of a catholic family, was brother of sir Edward, and born in Norfolk. Though educated at Douay, he took holy orders in the English church, and became known as a poet and dramatic writer. His character was extremely amiable, a circumstance noticed by lord Byron in his 'English Bards and Scotch Reviewers.' His earliest poem was one in favour of the Magdalen charity, Blackfriars ; and his two best plays are 'Margaret of Anjou,' and the 'Siege of Berwick.' He died aged 85. THEOPHILUS LINDSEY (1728—1803), son of a rich salt proprietor at Middlewick, Cheshire, completed his education at St. John's college, Cambridge, and took holy orders. When vicar of Catterick, Yorkshire, he became known for co-operating with arch-deacon Blackburne and others to obtain relief in matters of subscription to the 39 articles ; and, on the ground of not believing in the Trinity, he honourably resigned his living 1773, and became an unitarian preacher in London. In 1778 he built a chapel for himself in Essex-street, Strand, and published his 'Apology,' and a history of Socinian worship ; and he died aged 80. NEVIL MASKELYNE (1732—1811), born in London, was educated at Westminster-school, and Catherine-hall, Cambridge, and eventually became a fellow of Trinity college. His attachment to physical studies occasioned him (though he had taken orders, and proceeded D.D.) to be sent by the Royal Society to St. Helena, to observe the transit of Venus, 1761 ; he subsequently became astronomer royal, after Mr. Bliss, in 1767 commenced the 'Nautical Almanac' with

its valuable tables, and was employed to ascertain the gravitative attraction of the mountain Scheshallien in Perthshire, of which he published an account in the 'Philosophical Transactions.' He died aged 79. ROBERT MYLNE (1734—1811), born at Edinburgh, was son of an architect, and educated for that profession. After visiting Italy for improvement, he established himself in London, and was employed to build a bridge across the Thames at Blackfriars. The work was begun 1760, and completed with great credit 1770; and being the first bridge executed in this country, in which arches approaching the form of an ellipse were substituted for semi-circles, (whereby the roadway is brought much nearer to a level surface than by the old plan), it brought the architect into great repute, and occasioned him to be appointed surveyor to St. Paul's, &c. He died aged 77. ETIENNE MONTGOLFIER (1747—1799) was a paper-maker at Annonay in France, who made, in conjunction with his brother, the first successful experiments on record in the art of aërostation 1783. Their plan consisted in the inflation of a vast paper bag, by kindling under the mouth of it a large fire, which rarefied the air contained in it; and such air being thus rendered specifically lighter than an equal bulk of atmospheric air at the usual temperature, the bag rose to a considerable height. It having been found that a balloon, with a car attached to it, could thus be kept suspended by a supply of heated air, the experiment was repeated on a large scale at Versailles, where the marquis d'Arlandes ascended in presence of the court. An important improvement was soon after made by substituting for heated air hydrogen gas, which is probably the lightest fluid in nature. Etienne died, aged 52, 1799, and his brother, Joseph, who was an ingenious mechanist, and inventor of the 'hydrostatic ram,' aged 69, 1810. GERARD MÜLLER (1705—1788), born in Westphalia, became professor of

history in the academy of Peter the Great at St. Petersburg, 1780. He is chiefly known for a ten years' tour through Siberia, in the emperor's service, and for his admirable collection of Russian histories, in 9 volumes, which is a storehouse of information with regard to the antiquities, geography, history, &c. of the Muscovites. He died keeper of the Russian archives, aged 78. ANNA SEWARD (1747—1809) was daughter of Thomas Seward, rector of Eyam, Derbyshire, where she was born. She early displayed a talent for poetical composition, which, though checked by her father, was fostered by her friend Mrs. Miller of Bath Easton, who published many of her efforts in her 'Poetical Amusements.' She is, however, best known now by her 'Life of Dr. Darwin,' wherein she claims to have been author of the first fifty lines of his 'Botanic Garden.' She died unmarried, aged 62. MELCHIOR CESAROTTI, born at Padua, became professor of Greek and Hebrew in the university of that city. He is distinguished among his countrymen for his excellent paraphrases of the Iliad and Ossian, and for some prose essays on the drama, poetry in general, and on taste. He died 1808. ANTOINE CHAUDET (1763—1810), born at Paris, became an eminent sculptor and painter. In the latter art, his 'Æneas and Anchises' is regarded as a very fine composition. He was a member of the Institute, and died aged 47. THOMAS DUPUIS (1733—1796), born in England of French parents, succeeded Dr. Boyce as organist of the chapel-royal 1779, and then became composer to the king. His works are mostly unpublished in the chapel-royal collection; but two of his anthems, 'The Lord, even the most mighty God,' and 'I cried unto the Lord,' are printed and are deservedly prized. Dr. Dupuis died aged 63, leaving a son, Charles, also a doctor of music, and talented composer. JACQUES DELILLE (1747—1813), born at Clermont in Auvergne, after holding some office

in the Jesuit's college at Beauvais, became, on the destruction of that establishment, professor of humanity at Amiens, and subsequently professor of poetry in the college of La Manche, at Paris. His poem of 'Les Jardins' brought him both reputation and money; Voltaire became his patron, and the count de Choiseul Gouffier, on going ambassador to Constantinople, took him in his suite. During the Revolution, he resided in Switzerland, where he wrote his rural poem 'Homme des Champs.' In Turkey he had composed his 'Imagination.' JOHANN EBERHARD (1739—1809), born at Halberstadt, took orders, and became professor of theology at Halle, and privy counsellor to the king of Prussia. He opposed the tenets of Kant, and wrote an esteemed and solid work on the history of philosophy. JOHN CHRISTIERN FABRICIUS (1742—1807), born at Sleswick, attended the lectures of Linnæus, and became an entomologist. By a work which he wrote on that science 1775, when he was practising as a physician at Kiel, he produced a complete reform of that branch of geology; and his subsequent productions went to perfect a system of entomology, which, with all its theorizing as regards classification, is the most sensible one extant. JOHN FERRIAR (1764—1815), born at Chester, settled at Manchester as a physician, but is chiefly known as a miscellaneous writer. He had the merit of discovering the plagiarisms of Sterne, and of showing that eccentric author to have drawn largely upon Burton, who wrote on melancholy, bishop Hall, &c. JOHANN GRIESBACH (1745—1812), born at Hesse-Darmstadt, became professor of theology at Halle, and in that capacity devoted himself to biblical criticism. The result of his labours is his valuable edition of the 'New Testament,' with a copious collection of various readings, pointed out marginally. From Halle he removed to Jena, again as professor of theology; and he subsequently be-

came rector of the last-named university. ANDRÉ GRETRY (1741—1813), born at Liege, studied music as a profession from a very early age, and in 1759 walked to Rome to obtain a knowledge of the science, as practised in the eternal city. On finally settling at Paris, 1768, he produced thirty operas of extraordinary merit; of which 'Richard Cœur de Lion' and 'Zemire et Azor' are well known in England. He lived through the Revolution, and manifested himself therein a great scoundrel in every way. AUGUSTUS IFFLAND (1759—1814), born at Hanover, stole away from his parents to become an actor at Gotha, 1777, and was soon the chief ornament of the court theatre at Mannheim. He was no less famous as a dramatic author. The revolutionary war drove him from Mannheim to Weimar; and as soon as affairs were quiet in Russia, the king invited him to Berlin, to become director of the court entertainments. There he died, 1814. He is author of forty-seven plays; and Madame de Staël says of him 'there was not an accent or a gesture for which Iffland could not account as a philosopher and an artist.' EDMUND MALONE (1741—1812), son of an Irish judge, was born in Dublin, educated at Trinity college, and called to the bar in London, 1767. He, however, soon relinquished his profession (having a competent fortune), and devoted his time to literature. His chief work is an edition of Shakspeare. JEAN BRUGUIERES, born at Montpellier, visited the South Sea to collect the plants and insects of its islands, and then settled as a physician in his native town. He was the companion of Olivier in his eastern mission, and died on his way home, at Ancona, 1799. A new genus of plants which he discovered at Madagascar, has been named 'Bruguiera' in his honour. PETER PALLAS (1741—1811), born at Berlin, took his degree of M.D. at Leyden, and after improving his knowledge of clinical medicine, settled at the Hague, 1762. In 1767

he was employed by the Russian government to make researches into the natural history of its Asiatic provinces; and from the six years' investigation which followed, he amassed an important store of information, which he published in many works. The empress Catherine gave him an estate in the Crimea; but he died at Berlin, aged 70. JEAN SENEBIER (1742—1809), born at Geneva, took orders 1765, and was chosen minister of Chancery; but his leisure was devoted to philosophy and history, and his literary 'History of Geneva,' and 'Moral Tales,' are well known in England. WILLIAM VINCENT (1789—1815), born in London, was educated at Westminster-school, and Trinity college, Cambridge, of which latter he became fellow. In 1762 he was chosen one of the masters of Westminster-school, and gradually reached the headship 1788. He was made dean of Westminster, on the promotion of Dr. Horsley to the see of St. Asaph, 1803, and died aged 76. The dean is chiefly known as the author of a 'Commentary on Arrian's Voyage of Nearchus,' and 'Periplus of the Erythrean Sea.' ROBERT FERGUSON, born at Edinburgh, was educated for the kirk at St. Andrew's, but became clerk to a writer of the signet. In that capacity he displayed a taste for poetry, and wrote much in the pastoral, lyric, and even humorous kind. Scotsmen regard him as second only to Burns; but, like that talented man, he ruined his constitution by intemperance, and died insane, aged only 23, 1774. FRANCIS HULLER, educated at Westminster-school, studied law at the Middle Temple, and was called to the bar 1763. His alliance by marriage with the Bathurst family obtained his promotion to a Welch judgeship; and he was subsequently a judge of King's Bench, and then of Common Pleas, through the friendship of lord Mansfield. He wrote 'An Introduction to the Law of Nisi Prius,' a work of considerable value; and died suddenly, 1800, re-

spected as an impartial judge, a sound lawyer, and an upright man. THE GOWS were a father and son, celebrated in Scotland for their reel and strathspey playing on the violin. NEIL GOW, the father (1727—1807), left the weaving trade to cultivate music. He was born at Inver, near Dunkeld, and became known to, and was patronized by, all pretending to gentility in North Britain. Dying, aged 80, he left to his son the sweet savour of a fame which had made 'the stroke of Neil's bow discernible even among an hundred players.' NATHANIEL GOW, the son (1766—1831), born also at Inver, came at length to preside at all the Scottish peers' balls, those of the Caledonian Hunt, and at the parties of all northern fashionables. The name of the Gows is still 'an household word' in Scotland. JOSEPH SPENCE, born in Northamptonshire, was educated at Winchester-school, and New college, Oxford. He was elected professor of poetry in that university, 1728, and subsequently of modern history. Having taken holy orders, he was presented to the rectory of Great Horwood, but would never reside on his living. In 1754 he was promoted to a stall in Durham cathedral, of considerable value, known as one 'of the golden prebends' of that chapter; and in 1768 he was found lying with his face downwards, and dead, in a canal in his garden at Byfleet. He published a life of Stephen Duck, who had died in a similar manner, though his own decease was imputed to a fit; but his chief work, as to talent, is 'Polymetia,' being an inquiry into the agreement of the Roman poets with the remains of ancient artists, so as to illustrate each other. He attended Pope in his last moments, and wrote an Essay on his Odyssey, which Thomas Warton has pronounced a production of great merit. ALEXANDER SUMAROKOV (1718—1777), born at St. Petersburg, was the son of an officer in the Russian army. At an early age he displayed a great desire to study the works of

Racine and other dramatists ; and at twenty-five he produced a tragedy, which, in the absence of all theatres, was played before the empress Elizabeth in private, to her great satisfaction. This success encouraged the young poet to greater efforts ; but his first strenuous labour was to obtain an established play-house, for which he at length gained permission of the court, chiefly through the influence of the grand-duke Peter. The first Russian theatre was accordingly opened in St. Petersburg, 1756. Nothing beyond the scriptural pieces of Demetrius, bishop of Rostov, had ever before been performed, and that privately, in Muscovy ; so that Sumarokov may justly be regarded as the founder of the Russian drama. Among the tragedies he wrote for his theatre, his Demetrius, Semira, and Sinov and Truvor, are reckoned the best ; and they are admitted by his countrymen to contain passages as sublime as any in the productions of more modern dramatists. Sumarokov attempted also opera and farce, together with every species of poetry ; and his paraphrase of 'The Psalms' is still a very popular work in Russia. This northern votary of the muses died, aged 59, 1777. JOHN KER, third duke of Roxburgh, was a celebrated collector of books ; and from him the 'Roxburgh Club,' for a time so prominent in the literary world, derived its name. The duke died a bachelor, aged 81, 1804. MAXIMILIAN LEOPOLD, DUKE OF BRUNSWICK, nephew to the king of Prussia, served in that sovereign's army ; and, during a sudden inundation of the Oder, near Frankfort, attempting to save some of the unfortunate inhabitants from the waters, he fell a sacrifice to his humanity, 24th April, 1785, aged 63. HESTER LYNCH PIOZZI (1739—1821), was the daughter of Mr. Salusbury, a gentleman of some fortune of Bodvel, Caernarvonshire. At the age of 24, 1763, she married Mr. Henry Thrale, a brewer of great opulence in Southwark, and M. P. for that borough ; and soon after her

union she began to cultivate a literary friendship with Dr. Johnson, which, while it drew her into public notice, afforded the great lexicographer a considerable share of earthly comfort and happiness. Mr. Thrale had a pretty seat at Streatham-park (now Tooting-common, in the parish of Streatham), Surrey, with both the means and the will to treat a constant houseful of friends with hospitality ; and Johnson, being a frequent guest, was there introduced, in the easiest and most agreeable way, to many very influential persons both in church and state. Indeed so attached did both Mr. Thrale and his lady become to the doctor, that they often contrived to scrape acquaintance with strangers of rank and influence, in order that he might gain access to their society. In a quiet part of the mansion, overlooking a pretty lake, was the room devoted to the doctor's use as a dormitory, wherein was one of sir Joshua's portraits of him ; and in the grounds near the house was a picturesque root-house, raised high on sleepers, which was converted into a day-study for the same philosopher—a rustic tenement still existing, and wherein many of his essays were composed. On the decease of Mr. Thrale 1781, his widow retired to Bath, but in 1784 re-married. The second object of her choice was signor Piozzi, a Florentine, who taught music in that city. A warm but very rational expostulation on the part of Dr. Johnson at once and for ever dissolved their friendship ; and soon after her inconsiderate union, Mrs. Piozzi accompanied her husband on a visit to his native city, during her abode in which she joined other English residents in the production of a collection of pieces in verse and prose, entitled 'The Florence Miscellany.' Her 'Observations made in a Journey through France, Italy, and Germany,' is this lively and capricious lady's best prose work, as is her sensible tale, 'The Three Warnings,' her best poetical one : all her productions

savouring more of the maxim 'Vive la bagatelle' than of profundity. She became a second time a widow, and it is curious that, in her old age, her constant pleasure was to talk of her ancient friendship with Johnson; which we must favourably interpret into a symptom of her regret for the ungrateful manner in which she had eventually treated him. Had she reflected, which she was capable enough of doing, (since Johnson, Boswell, and others unite in admitting her good sense, when unfettered by mean considerations), that he is alone the true friend who advises justly, and who remonstrates when advice is fruitless, she would have taken all from him patiently, defended herself resolutely, and still have remained unchangeably his friend. She died at Bath, aged 82, 1821. THOMAS PERCIVAL (1740—1804), born at Warrington, Lancashire, studied medicine at Edinburgh and Leyden, and then settled as a physician at Manchester. In that town he practised with great repute, in a day when a devotion to literature in leisure hours did not operate injuriously to the medical man; and he accordingly gave to the world his sensible 'Moral Tales,' and other like ethical works. He was the founder and first president of the Manchester Philosophical Society; but that institution became a sort of rallying point for Arian dissenters, of which Dr. Percival was one. The worthy physician also mingled much with some violent political partisans; so that all his attempts to establish mathematical and other societies, and to gain support for dissenting academies at Warrington and Manchester, were constantly frustrated. He died aged 64, 1804. Dr. JOHN SIBTHORP, of Canwick, Lincolnshire, was educated at University college, Oxford, where he succeeded his father, Dr. Humphry Sibthorp, as professor of botany. He travelled twice to Greece, and made a collection of curious plants, which were begun in a splendid form under the title of '*Flora Græca*.' He also

published '*Flora Oxoniensis*,' and died 1796. (See *Thomas Platt*, vol. iii.) JOHN FELL, of Cockermouth, was originally a tailor, but acquired some knowledge of the classics, and became a dissenting preacher at Eccles, Suffolk, and afterwards at Thaxsted, Essex. He was subsequently tutor at the academy at Homerton, from which he was dismissed, says his biographer, for reading a newspaper on a Sunday. A subscription of 100 guineas was then made for him to preach sermons on the evidences of Christianity. Four only of these were delivered at the Scots church, Londonwall, when the preacher fell a victim to a dropsy, 1797. Fell was a man of considerable talent, and wrote answers to 'Farmer's Essay on the Demoniacs,' 'Genuine Protestantism,' and 'An Essay on the Laws of one's Country.' CHARLES BATTEUX, philosophical professor of the French academy, was eminent for his erudition, as well as his private virtues. His works are various, chiefly on classical literature; and his death was accelerated by grief, in observing that the elementary book which he wrote for the military school at Paris, did not succeed so well as he wished. He died at Paris 1780, aged 67. Among other works he published the four Poetics of Aristotle, Horace, Vida, and Boileau, with notes. WILLIAM BATTIE, born in Devonshire, was educated at Eton and King's college, Cambridge. His wish to study the law was checked by poverty; and he turned his thoughts to physic, and practised at Uxbridge and London, and became physician to St. Luke's. In 1738, he married the daughter of Barnham Goode, under-master of Eton-school, a man whom, for a satirical poem, Pope has immortalized in his Dunciad. Dr. Battie was lampooned for the active part which he took with the college of physicians against Dr. Schomberg, in 1750, in the Battiad, a poem said to be written by Schomberg, Moses Mendez, and Paul Whitehead. Dr. Battie's observations on insanity re-

commended him to public notice, and he was with Dr. Munroe examined at the bar of the house of commons with respect to the private madhouses in the kingdom. He died of a paralytic stroke 1776, aged 75. PHILIP SKELTON, a divine, born near Lisburn, in Ireland, 1707. After an education at Trinity college, Dublin, he became curate of Monaghan, and in 1750 obtained the living of Peltigo, in Donegal. Here, in a time of scarcity, the charitable pastor even sold his library to supply his indigent parishioners with bread. The bishop of Clogher, in 1759, presented him to the living of Deonish, in Fermanagh, and in 1766, to that of Fintona, in Tyrone; where his eloquence was so powerful, that he gained over to the church the dissenters of his district. He died in Dublin, 1787. He published three volumes of sermons, which possess superior merit. JOHN CLELAND, son of colonel Cleland, the Will Honeycomb of the 'Spectator,' was consul at Smyrna; and on his return to England he went to the East Indies. His quarrel with the presidency of Bombay prevented his advancement; and on his arrival in London, he endeavoured to extricate himself from debt and the horrors of a prison, by writing infamous publications; which, though they procured him not more than twenty guineas, brought into the hands of his licentious bookseller not less than 10,000*l*. The evil tendency of his publications caused his appearance before the privy council; but lord Granville, the president, admitted his plea of poverty; and, to engage him no longer to exercise his abilities in such immoral compositions, he procured him a pension of 100*l*. a year. His 'Memoirs of a Coxcomb,' and his 'Man of Honour,' in some degree compensated for the depravity of his former works. He died 1789, aged 82. JOHN WHITEHEAD, a methodist preacher, was well educated; and, panting after distinction, he quitted the trade of a linendraper at Bristol,

and then kept a school at Wandsworth, where he was patronized by the quakers, whose principles he had adopted, after abandoning the society of the methodists. He next travelled on the continent as tutor to one of his pupils, and at Leyden took his medical degrees. On his return, he became physician to the London dispensary, which, however, did not hinder him from preaching the funeral sermon of John Wesley! Of that schismatic he published a copious life; and he died 1804. NICOLAS BERTHOLON, an eminent French writer, born at Lyons, where he died 1799. He was professor of medicine at Montpellier, which he quitted for the historical chair of Lyons. His works were written with ability, chiefly on electricity, aërostation, vegetation, &c. His memoir on the causes of the prosperity and of the decay of the commerce of Lyons, was a popular work, published 1782, and contained interesting matter on machines, the arts, &c. JOHN BOYDELL, an eminent artist, born at Dorrington, Shropshire, and brought up as a land-surveyor under his father. The accidental meeting of some landscapes so captivated his attention, that he studied engraving. His landscapes, published in 1745, proved the source of profit as well as celebrity, and he became the friend of artists of genius and ability. Eager to exhibit the productions of his country, he nobly stood forth as the public encourager of merit; and by opening the Shakspeare gallery in Pall-mall, he displayed the beautiful and highly-finished labours of the English school. He was elected an alderman of London, and in 1791 served the office of lord mayor. Sensible, of the esteem of his fellow-citizens, he presented to the corporation some valuable pictures, preserved as monuments of his friendship in Guildhall. He died in 1804, aged 85. ANDREW DUCAREL, born at Greenwich was educated at Eton, and St. John's college, Oxford. In 1757 he was Lambeth librarian under Hutton,

and he devoted himself in improving the catalogues of that valuable collection. Of all his preferments, that which pleased him most was his commissariate of St. Catherine's, of which he has given an elaborate history, with beautiful engravings. He was so fond of antiquities, that he travelled every year in company with his friend Gale, with a Camden's Britannia and a set of maps; and by proceeding about 15 miles a day, examined every place with accuracy. He was cheerful and hospitable; and of his knowledge of antiquities, the best specimen is his 'History of Croydon Palace,' and of 'Lambeth,' &c. He died at South Lambeth, aged 72, 1785. CHARLES MICHAEL DE L'ÉPÉE, born at Paris, became celebrated for his humane efforts in favour of the deaf and dumb. By his salutary instruction, these unfortunate persons often acquired the knowledge of six different languages, and became profound mathematicians and ready calculators. This benevolent man, after receiving honourable marks of esteem and gratitude from the empress of Russia, the emperor of Germany, and the king of France, died at Paris, 1790. He was succeeded by l'abbé Sicard, as superintendent of institutions for the deaf and dumb. ALLEN BATHURST, descended from the Bathursts of Northamptonshire, was educated at Trinity college, Oxford, under his uncle the president, and was afterwards elected in two parliaments for Cirencester. He opposed Marlborough, and was one of the 12 lords introduced in one day, 1711, to the upper house, to form a majority. He continued firm to his political friends, even in their disgrace, and boldly opposed the attainder of Bolingbroke and Ormond; and in 1718, he showed himself, as a speaker among the peers, the most formidable opponent of the measures of the court. In 1704 he had married Catherine, daughter of sir Peter Apsley, of Sussex, by whom he had four sons and five daughters. His only surviving son was for some

years chancellor of England, and made a peer by the title of lord Apsley. Lord Bathurst was employed about the person of Frederic prince of Wales, and of his son George III.; at whose accession he resigned his offices for a pension of 1200*l*. In his private character lord Bathurst was a man of great generosity, and affable in manners; and his long and familiar acquaintance with Pope, Swift, and Addison, prove him to have possessed wit, taste, and erudition. He was attached to rural amusements, and fond of conviviality. He drank regularly his bottle after dinner, and laughed at the temperate regimen of Dr. Cadogan, which 50 years before Dr. Cheyne had recommended to him, assuring him that he would not live seven years more if he did not abstain from wine. He died 1775, aged 91. POMPEO BATONI, a native of Lucca, eminent as a painter. His best piece is Simon the magician contending with St. Peter, preserved at Rome in the great church dedicated to the apostle. Batoni died 1787, aged 79. CHARLES COUNT DE VERGENNES, a French statesman. He, in 1755, was sent as ambassador from France to Constantinople; where his good conduct merited the thanks of his master, and the approbation of Maria Theresa, and of Catherine of Russia. He was in 1771 ambassador in Sweden, and promoted the revolution which made Gustavus master of his country; and on the accession of Louis XVI. he was recalled to be minister of foreign affairs. Whilst he spread the influence of France through Europe, he eagerly promoted general tranquillity. In his politics towards the English he greatly erred; and by supporting the Americans in their revolt against the mother country, he laid the foundation of a system which hurled his master from his throne. His treaty of peace with England, in 1783, was followed by a commercial treaty, which proved beneficial to both countries. He died 1787, aged 68, and was magnificently bu-

ried by the order of Louis, who shed tears of affection over the ashes of his favourite minister. **WILLIAM WHITEHEAD** was born 1715 at Cambridge, where his father was a baker. He obtained, at the age of 14, a nomination to Winchester college, and there obtained a prize for a poem which Pope set to the scholars, when he visited the school in company with lord Peterborough. Though respectable in the school for abilities, he lost the election to New college for want of friends, and entered at Clare hall, Cambridge, where as the son of a baker, he had a claim to a scholarship. In 1742 he became fellow, and then engaged in the family of lord Jersey, as tutor to his son, and to his friend general Stevens. Amidst the independence of his situation, he directed his thoughts to dramatic composition, and produced his 'Roman Father,' and his 'Creusa,' which met with great applause. In 1754 he accompanied his pupil and lord Nuneham on the continent, and through Germany passed to Italy, and returned through Switzerland, Germany, and Holland, in 1756. The views of Rome were not lost on the imagination of a man of genius and of taste; and on his return, he presented to the public his elegy, written at Haut-villiers, an ode on the campaign of Rome, and five eclogues. By the interest of lady Jersey, he was appointed secretary and register to the order of the Bath, and two years after succeeded Cibber as poet-laureat. Thus raised to independence, he continued the friend of the two noblemen over whose education he had presided; and the many days which he passed at Nuneham and Middleton park, were proofs of the goodness of his heart, as much as of the virtues, and the grateful generosity of his pupils. In the midst of these pleasing assiduities of friendship, he devoted much of his time to the muses; and besides his occasional odes, he wrote the 'School for Lovers,' a comedy acted at Drury-lane, 1762. He died suddenly, after a

short confinement, 1785. **JOHN ENRICK**, a clergyman and schoolmaster at Stepney, known as the author of a Latin and of a spelling dictionary. He also wrote a history of the war terminated in 1763, a history of London abridged from Stow, and other works. He died 1780. **CATHERINE MACAULAY**, daughter of John Sawbridge, Esq. In 1760 she married Dr. Macaulay, a physician, and after his death she took for her second husband, 1778, the Rev. Mr. Graham, brother to the empiric of that name. She displayed an extraordinary love of liberal principles; and her conduct was often so romantic, that in 1785 she passed over to America, to become acquainted with Washington, who continued one of her regular correspondents. She died 1791. She published the history of England from James I to the Brunswick line, 'Remarks on Hobbes's Rudiments of Government,' and other works, tinged with her peculiar political sentiments; and her friend Dr. Wilson so much admired her enthusiasm in favour of liberty, that he set up her statue in the chancel of his parish church of Walbrook, which was very properly removed by the next incumbent. **MARY ROBINSON**, known for her genius and misfortunes, was born at Bristol, where her father, an American, was captain of a ship; and at the age of fifteen she married Mr. Robinson, an attorney, which proved the source of much misery. Her husband was unfortunate and extravagant, and after accompanying him to a jail, she turned her thoughts to the stage. As her person was pleasing, and her abilities respectable, she appeared with credit in the characters of Juliet, Ophelia, Rosalind, Imogene, Viola, &c. Whilst rising in the public estimation under Garrick, she unfortunately attracted, in the character of Perdita, the attention of the prince of Wales; and those who ought to have defended his virtue, became the criminal encouragers of a licentious amour, which this frail woman

had not the prudence to withstand. She left the stage for the guilty protection of her Florizel; but soon became indifferent in the eyes of the once-enraptured prince. Thus cut off from the protection of her husband, and lost to virtue and to honour, she became the degraded mistress of profligate men. She died at the end of 1800, aged 42, and was buried in Old Windsor churchyard, where some elegant lines, from the pen of Mr. Pratt, mark her untimely tomb. She wrote a number of poetical trifles under the name of 'Laura Maria', and 'Vancenza,' a romance. LOUIS DE JAUCOURT, a Frenchman, who disregarded the advantages of birth and rank for the pleasures of study. His knowledge was very extensive, and he conducted the 'Bibliothèque Raisonnée,' from its commencement in 1740, and assisted Gaubius and others in the 'Museum Sebeæanum' in 1754. He was member of the Royal Society of London, and of the academies of Berlin and Stockholm; but refused the liberal invitations of the Stadtholder to settle in Holland, observing that he had no necessities nor ambition, but only wished for studious obscurity. He died 1780. HORACE BENEDICT DE SAUSSURE was born at Geneva, 1740. At the age of twenty-one he was elected philosophical professor at Geneva, and continued there with great public advantage for twenty-five years. He first visited Paris in 1768, and next examined the discoveries of Montgolfier at Lyons, and travelled through Holland, Belgium, England, and Italy. He visited the island of Elba, and with Sir William Hamilton examined Vesuvius, and afterwards measured the crater of *Ætna*. He discovered some valuable plants, and also invented various instruments for the operations of science and of art. His next excursions were on the Alps; and after crossing them fourteen times by eight different routes, he ascended to the positive summit of Mont Blanc, where the rarity of the air nearly stopped

his respiration. He was made member of the academy of sciences at Paris; and the emperor Joseph, when at Geneva, paid particular attention to the philosopher. In the French revolution, he was elected on the union of his country to France, to the national assembly; but the disorders of the times ruined his little fortune, and broke his heart, 1799. He is author of various philosophical works on thunder, electricity, hygrometry, and the structure and natural productions of the Alps. JOSEPH RICHARDSON, of Hexham, Northumberland, entered at St. John's college, Cambridge, in 1774, and afterwards studied at the Middle Temple. He wrote criticisms on the *Rolliad*, and probationary odes for the laureateship, in which he censured with broad satire the great public characters of the times, and 'The Fugitive,' a comedy, performed with some applause. He was for some time in parliament, but did not distinguish himself as an orator. He died 1803. SIMON LINGUET, born 1736 at Rheims, went in the suite of the French general against Portugal; and during a residence in Spain he applied himself to the language, and translated some dramatic pieces into French. On his return to France, he by the brilliant powers of his eloquence at the bar acquired great celebrity, especially in his masterly defence of Aiguillon, and Morangies. His high reputation excited the jealousy of rivals; and by an unmanly combination they obtained a decree from the parliament that he should no longer be permitted to plead. Thus robbed of his honours, he had recourse to his pen, and produced several political pamphlets, a periodical journal, and his celebrated 'Theory of the Laws.' The freedom of his observations excited against him the persecution of Maurepas; and he fled to Switzerland, and then to Holland, and to London. From England he passed to Brussels, and wrote a petition to Vergennes to be permitted to return

to France in security. His request was granted; but in 1779 some political delinquency threw him into the Bastille, whence, after two years, he was liberated on promise of being moderate in his writings. He soon after came again to England, where he wrote his *Memoirs of the Bastille*, and then retired to Brussels, where he began his 'Political Annals.' His observations on the freedom of the navigation of the Scheldt, were read with admiration by the people of Brabant; and Joseph II. permitted him to come to Vienna, and presented him with 1000 ducats. Regardless of this kindness, he scrupled not to defend the measures which Vandernoot and the rebellious Brabanters were meditating against the authority of their monarch; and being thereupon banished from Germany, he came to Paris to share in the dangers of the revolution, and in 1791 appeared at the bar of the national assembly to plead the cause of the negroes of St. Domingo. During the reign of terror, he fled from the capital, but was discovered, and was condemned to death, and suffered by the guillotine, 1794, on pretence of having disgraced his nation by paying the tribute of respect to the governments of London and Vienna. JULIUS BATE, a friend of Hutchinson, the author of Hutchinsonianism, was recommended by that hypothetical writer to Charles, duke of Somerset, who gave him the living of Sutton, in Sussex. He attended Hutchinson in his last illness, and contradicted the report that his friend on his deathbed had recanted to Dr. Mead the publication of his writings. Dr. Mead, it is to be observed, had much to his surprise been dismissed from his attendance on Hutchinson. Bate was author of some valuable pieces on criticism and divinity, and in defence of his friend's system. He died 1771. THOMAS POWNALL, born in Lincolnshire, became governor of New Jersey, and afterwards of Massachusetts, which he exchanged in 1760 for that of South Carolina.

In the American war he returned to England, and was comptroller-general of the expenditure, &c. of the army in Germany. He died at Bath much respected 1795, aged 73. He was a man of great information, and well skilled in antiquities. He wrote besides other works, 'Memoirs on Drainage and Navigation,' 'Treatise on Antiquities,' and a 'Description of Antiquities in the Provincia Romana of Gaul.' NICOLAS STOFFLET, of Luneville, for some years served in the French army as a private soldier. During the revolution, he warmly espoused the cause of royalty, and, seizing Bressuire, maintained himself against the troops of the Convention. Hoche prevailed upon him at last to lay down his arms, and to be reconciled to the government. Stofflet agreed to an armistice in 1795; but soon after his conduct was interpreted as subversive of the treaty, and, as he was defenceless, he was easily seized and dragged to Angers, where he was shot, 1796, in his 44th year. This active leader, who thus fell a victim to the tyranny and injustice of the Convention, had been, during the short space of two years, present at 150 battles; and he displayed in his last moments the same intrepidity which had marked his life. ISRAEL MAUDUIT, born at Exeter, was educated for the ministry among the dissenters, but soon quitted his clerical employment to be partner with his brother Jasper, a London merchant. In 1760 he wrote 'Considerations on the German War,' and he was afterwards appointed agent for the province of Massachusetts, and consequently became a warm partisan in the disputes between the Americans and the mother country. He died 1787, aged 79. M. MECHAIN, a native of Lyons, who made observations on the eclipse seen at Versailles, 1774. His work on the great comet of 1661, whose appearance was again expected in 1790 procured him the prize of the academy in 1782; and he was employed in 1792 to measure a degree of the

meridian between Dunkirk and Barcelona. He finished the work in 1798, and proposed to extend it to the Balears; but he died before the completion of his labours of a fever, on the coast of Valencia, 1805. He edited the 'Connoissance des Temps,' and was much respected for his general information. RALPH GRIFFITHS, a native of Shropshire, known in the republic of letters as the first editor and printer of the 'Monthly Review,' a periodical work, begun in 1749, and by his assiduity and the co-operation of men of talents and information, raised to great celebrity. This useful work was so ably and successfully conducted, that it procured him a comfortable independence, on which he retired to his residence at Turnham Green, some years before his death. He died 1803, aged 83. BENJAMIN STILLINGFLEET, a naturalist and poet, grandson of the bishop. His father (Edward) had displeased his father by marriage, and the displeasure of the bishop proved injurious to his posterity. He died 1708, and Benjamin, his only son, was educated at Norwich-school, and Trinity college, Cambridge, but was disappointed of a fellowship by the interference of Bentley, the master, who had been his father's friend, and his grandfather's chaplain. Thrown upon the world, he visited Italy, and on his return, by the friendship of lord Barrington, he obtained the place of barrack-master at Kensington. He succeeded to some property on the death of his friend Mr. Wyndham of Norfolk, with whom he had travelled abroad, and studied history and botany; and he died 1771, aged 69. His works are the 'Calendar of Flora,' 'Miscellaneous Travels,' 'The Principles and Powers of Harmony,' and some poems. MICHAEL JEAN SEDAINE, born at Paris, 1719, left the employment of stonemason for literature, and by frequenting the theatre, imbibed such partiality for dramatic pieces, that he directed the powers of his ardent imagination to the composition of a play. He was

successful, and in 1754 Mouet, director of the comic opera, by employing the talents of the new dramatist, commanded numerous audiences. Sedaïne was a mild and amiable man, and his abilities procured him a seat in the Academy of Inscriptions. He died 1797. His comic operas are numerous and valuable, and some of them, such as 'Richard Cœur de Lion,' and 'Blue Beard,' still occasionally make their appearance on the English stage. WILLIAM BOYCE, born in London 1710, was a chorister at St. Paul's; but he made such a proficiency in music, that the highest expectations were formed of him. His master, Dr. Greene, at his death entrusted his MSS. to his care, and the publication of his anthems; but an incurable deafness came as it were to darken all the prospects of the young proficient. Perseverance, however, overcame every difficulty, and he was honourably made in 1749 Mus. D. by the university of Cambridge, and in 1757 master of the king's band, and afterwards organist and composer to the chapel royal. He died 1779. His songs will ever be admired for elegance and taste; and his anthems, oratorios, and other musical compositions, if not works of profound science, possess great merit. PETER WHALLEY, of Northamptonshire, was educated at Merchant Taylors' and St. John's college, Oxford. He was chosen in 1768 master of the grammar-school of Christ's hospital, which he resigned in 1776, and soon after succeeded to St. Olave's school in Southwark. He obtained St. Sepulchre's vicarage, Northampton, and afterwards St. Margaret Pattens, and Horley, Sussex. He died 1791. He wrote an inquiry into the learning of Shakespeare, and gave to the world a new edition of Ben Jonson's works with notes. BIRZANSTAHL, professor of the oriental languages at Upsal, was a native of Sudermania. He visited Europe with his pupils, the sons of baron Rudbek, and afterwards travelled to Turkey, and died at Sa-

lonica, 1779. His entertaining letters, written in Swedish during his travels, have been translated into German and English. JEAN LE FRANÇOIS MARQUIS DE POMPIGNAN, born at Montauban, 1709. He cultivated the muses, and his tragedy of Dido raised him to the rank of a poet, little inferior to Racine. He became member of the French academy 1760, and pronounced, at his admission, a discourse in favour of Christianity, wherein he alleged that the man of religion and virtue is the only true philosopher. This, as might be expected, drew upon him the ridicule of the profligate philosophers of the times, Voltaire, Helvetius, and their associates, and drove him from Paris to his estate; where he spent the rest of his days in the study, occupation, and duties of philosophy and religion. He died there of apoplexy, 1784. His works consist of dramatic pieces—moral discourses—sacred odes—an imitation of the Georgics—and ‘Voyage de Languedoc.’ PIERRE DU BELLOI, a native of Auvergne, who, after being educated for the bar, retired to Russia, where he assumed the character of a comedian. He returned to Paris in 1758, and published the tragedy of Titus, and that of Zelmira; but his most popular piece was the ‘Siege of Calais.’ The magistrates of Calais honoured him with the freedom of their city in consequence of its production, and placed his portrait among those of their benefactors; and Voltaire paid the highest compliment to the genius and merit of the poet. ‘Gaston’ and ‘Bajard’ were pieces alike successful; but his subsequent plays, ‘Peter the Cruel,’ and ‘Gabrielle de Vergi,’ were so little admired, that the poet’s heart sank through disappointment; he fell a prey to a lingering disease; and though Louis XVI. with exemplary benevolence sent him 50 louis d’or, he expired 1775, aged 48. GIAN BATTISTA BECCARIA, a learned monk of Mondovi, was teacher of philosophy and mathematics at Palermo

and Rome. He wrote dissertations on electricity, and an essay on the cause of storms; and died at Turin, 1781. JACOPO BARTOLOMEO BECCARIA, a native of Bononia, studied medicine, and became professor of natural philosophy in his native town. As a medical reader he acquired opulence and fame. His publications on philosophical and medical subjects were numerous; and his opinion was courted by the learned of Europe, and his name enrolled among their most respectable societies. Beccaria studied the diseases of the temper as well as those of the body, and by perseverance converted his own sour disposition to mildness and placid composure. He died 1766, aged 84. CESARE, MARQUIS DI BECCARIA, an Italian philosopher, published a treatise on crimes and punishments, which proved a popular work, and was translated into various languages. He died 1795, aged 75. PIERRE DE BEAUMARCHAIS, son of a clockmaker, was born at Paris 1732. He was brought up to his father’s profession, and invented a new escapement in the machinery of a watch, which was disputed with him by another artist, but honourably adjudged to him. He was also eminent as a musician, and was noticed by the sisters of Louis XV. and liberally patronized for the part which he supported in their private concerts. Upon the breaking out of the revolution, he fled to Holland, and then to England; but afterwards returned to France and was imprisoned. Liberated with difficulty from the Abbaye, he died suddenly in 1799, aged 69. He wrote the plays ‘Eugenie,’ ‘Les Deux Amis,’ ‘The Marriage of Figaro,’ and ‘Tarare,’ the latter an opera; and became wealthy by their successful representation. LAURENT DE LA BEAUMELLE, a native of Valeraugues, honourably treated in Denmark, and afterwards at Berlin, where he became acquainted with Voltaire. On his return to Paris, 1758, he was confined in the Bastille for his book called ‘Mes Pensées;’ but he was re-

stored to liberty, and retired to Toulouse. He was afterwards librarian to the king; but a dropsy in the chest rapidly terminated his life, 1773, in his 46th year. His most valuable works are, 'Memoirs of Mad. Maintenon,' and a Commentary on Voltaire's 'Henriade.' PERCIVAL POTT, born in Threadneedle street, London, 1713. Though he had the prospect of church preferment by means of his patron, Bishop Wilcox, he chose the profession of a surgeon. In 1745 he was elected surgeon of St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and in 1764 was made fellow of the Royal Society. After a long life, devoted to the service of mankind, he died 1788, in consequence of a cold caught in visiting a country patient. This worthy man advanced the science of surgery, not only by the result of long experience, but by the invention of several surgical instruments, and by some valuable treatises. The chief of his works are, 'A Treatise on Hernia,' 'On Wounds of the Head,' 'Observations on Fistula Lacrymalis,' and 'Remarks on Hydrocele and on Cataract.' GREGORY SHARPE, born in Yorkshire 1713, came from Hull school to Westminster, and then went to Aberdeen. He was eventually elected minister of Broadway chapel, St. James's, and then made chaplain to the king, and Master of the Temple. He died 1771. Dr. Sharpe wrote a 'Review of the Controversy about the Demoniacs of the New Testament,' 'Two Dissertations on the Origin of Language, and the Power of Letters, with a Hebrew Lexicon,' and a 'Defence of Dr. Clarke against Leibnitz.' PIERRE POISSONNIER, a physician of Dijon, one of the first who read chemical lectures at Paris. He was sent by the court to St. Petersburg, at the request of Elizabeth, empress of Russia, who wished for the advice of an eminent physician; and on his return he was made first physician to the army, and obtained a pension of 12,000 livres. The revolution sent him with all his family into confinement; but he was re-

stored to liberty after the fall of Robespierre, and died 1797, aged 79. He wrote treatises on 'The means of rendering Sea Water potable,' 'On the Fevers of St. Domingo,' and 'On the Diseases of Seamen.' JOHN BASKERVILLE, a native of Worcestershire, distinguished as a printer. From a writing-master at Birmingham, he became a japanner, and five years after, in 1750, he commenced printer. He spent much money in the improvement of this favourite pursuit, and it was not before 1756 that he published his first work, a beautiful 4to. edition of Virgil. Other books equal in beauty issued from his press, till in 1765 he solicited his friend Dr. Franklin to procure him at Paris purchasers for his types. The expenses of the war prevented his meeting the encouragement which he hoped; but after his death the types, much to the disgrace of the booksellers of London, as well as the British nation, were doomed to add celebrity to the labours of the literati of France, who purchased them in 1779 for 3700*l.* and soon after expended not less than 100,000*l.* in printing the works of Voltaire. Baskerville, in his private character, was indolent, peevish, and resentful; and he was so far an infidel, that he raised himself a mausoleum in his ground that his body might not rest among Christians, whose religion he disregarded. He died 1775, aged 69. JOSEPH HIGHMORE, born in London, early showed a strong inclination for painting; but his father bound him clerk to an attorney. Nature however prevailed over parental authority; and young Highmore, guided by his own genius, gradually became a professed artist in 1715, at the expiration of his clerkship. In 1716 he married the daughter of Mr. Hiller, and removed from the city in 1724 to a house in Lincoln's-inn-fields. His engagements now grew upon him; he was employed in painting an historical picture of the knights of the Bath, on the revival of the order, and he was then engaged on

the portrait of the duke of Cumberland, and some time after on those of the prince and princess of Wales, and of the chief nobility. In 1734 he made an excursion to Paris, to copy the famous group of The Court of Lycomedes, which was afterwards destroyed by the Russians at Charlottenburg in Prussia. In 1744 he painted a set of pictures on the history of Pamela, then just published, and thus became acquainted with the excellent author, Richardson. His paintings, during a practice of 46 years, were numerous, the best known of which are Hagar and Ishmael, in the Foundling hospital, the good Samaritan, the finding of Moses, the Harlowe Family from Clarissa, and the Graces unveiling Nature. He died wealthy at Canterbury, aged 87, 1780. GUILLAUME BERTHIER, a Jesuit, born at Issoudun, known as the conductor of the *Journal de Trevoux*, for 17 years. He was an able critic; and after the dissolution of his order, he was made a royal librarian, and joint preceptor to Louis XVI. and Monsieur, but in 18 months resigned his employments and retired to Osseburg. He returned to France, and died of a fall at Bourges, 1782, aged 78. His translation of the psalms into French, and 'L'Histoire de l'Eglise Gallicane,' are proofs of his taste and erudition. WILLIAM LAUDER, a native of Scotland, who published in 1739 an edition of Johnston's psalms, and in 1742 was appointed master of Dundee school. He afterwards came to London, and in 1747 began to publish in the 'Gentleman's Magazine' his forgeries on Milton, which in 1751 he collected together under the title of an 'Essay on Milton's use and imitation of the Moderns in his Paradise Lost.' His quotations, though for some time supposed to be genuine, were proved to be forgeries from Grotius and others, by Mr. Bowle and Dr. Douglas; and the plagiarist thereupon subscribed a confession of his offence, dictated by Dr. Johnson, and acknowledged the baseness of his conduct. He

subsequently went to Barbadoes, and died there, 1771. JOHN BOWLE was educated at Oriel college, Oxford, and died on his birthday, 1788, aged 63. He was the first detector of Lauder's forgeries, and published a fine edition of Don Quixote, in Spanish. WILLIAM BOWYER, born in London, 1699, and educated at Merchant Tailors' and St. John's college, Cambridge, followed the business of his father, who was a printer of eminence; and his first publication was 'Selden's Works,' by Wilkins. He was printer of the votes of the house of commons in 1729, by the friendship of Onslow the speaker, and held that lucrative office for nearly 50 years. In 1761, he was appointed printer to the Royal Society, and two years after he published an excellent edition of the New Testament. It was not merely in printing books in a superior style that Bowyer distinguished himself, but in enriching various works with notes, prefaces, and dissertations. He took, in 1766, John Nichols for his partner. His literary career was finished in 1777, by the publication of Bentley's dissertations on Phalaris, with additional notes. He died in November of the same year, aged 78. The public character of Mr. Bowyer was the theme of universal admiration, while his private virtues proclaimed him a man of probity, the friend of humanity. His property, which was the honourable acquisition of industry, was left to his son, except some handsome legacies and annuities to three poor printers of sober life, and who were well versed in Greek and Latin. SAMUEL BADCOCK, son of a butcher of South Molton, was born 1747, and was educated in the tenets of the dissenters. He early imbibed some of the strong principles of the methodists on free grace, election, &c.; which in his maturer years he totally abandoned. His first employment as pastor was at Wimborne, in Dorsetshire; whence he removed to Barnstaple, in Devonshire. In this and

situation, he met some of Dr. Priestley's theological works, which he admired so much, that he visited him, and afterwards corresponded with him. His vivacity however, the modest elegance of his discourses, and the easiness of his manners, soon raised him enemies among men who had embraced the rigid tenets of the nonconformists; and he was ejected from his office, in 1777, on a scandalous imputation, which proved false, and highly reflected on his accusers. He retired to South Molton, and in 1780 he began to write for the *Monthly Review*, and likewise published a small pamphlet on the topic of the day, the materiality or immateriality of the soul. As a reviewer, he distinguished himself by his critique on Madan's *Thelyphthora*, and the Chattertonian controversy; but when Priestley's '*Corruptions of Christianity*' appeared, his observations upon it were so forcible, and so well supported, that they drew an answer from the author in less than a month, in which the abilities of the unknown critic were candidly allowed to be respectable. Priestley found himself likewise attacked by Horsley; and when Badcock, in the *Review*, praised the performance, the offended unitarian, who had discovered him, accused him of misrepresentation. Badcock had the good sense not to reply. During his residence at South Molton, he married the niece of the famous John Wesley; and from the papers which he received by that union, he published an account of the family. His character was now so well established, that his assistance was courted by Dr. Joseph White, Hebrew professor at Oxford, who had been appointed Bampton lecturer, in 1783; and soon after were preached by the professor a series of sermons, which astonished, by their depth and eloquence, the theologians of the day. For three successive terms, the church of St. Mary at Oxford was crowded with an auditory breathless in admiration of the splendour of diction and vividness of

imagery manifested in these discourses. What the extent of this connexion was, has been a matter of controversy; but it is now commonly understood that the professor had the meanness to pass off the purchased and very superior productions of the dissenter for his own. If Dr. White had been more punctual in his payment of a reward so justly deserved, his character might have been unassailed, and he might have securely reposed under the laurels of his coadjutor. In 1786 Badcock quitted the dissenters, and in the following spring was ordained, and officiated at the Octagon Chapel, Bath, where he preached a much admired charity sermon; and he also preached before the judges at Exeter, in Lent, 1783, and by the peculiarities of his style betrayed his part in the Bampton Lectures. He died, 1784, of a bilious complaint, at the house of his friend sir John Chichester, baronet. His constitution was naturally weak, and he was frequently attacked by delirious headaches, which so much affected his spirits, that he dreaded the loss of reason far more than that of life. JOSEPH WHITE (1746—1814), born at Stroud, Gloucestershire, was the son of a weaver. An early turn for reading, wherein he indulged while working for his parent, enabled him to acquire such a knowledge of literature as attracted the notice of a neighbouring gentleman, who procured him the means of further instruction, and sent him to Wadham college, Oxford, of which he became a fellow. Directing his studies especially to Oriental learning, he was in 1775 chosen Laudian professor of Arabic, and was employed by the university to edit a Philoxenian Syriac version of the four gospels. He soon after was appointed a Whitehall preacher, and in 1781 was selected to preach the course of Bampton Lectures. These discourses immediately procured the professor an astonishing accession to his literary reputation; but his fame was suddenly grievously lowered by the unhappy discovery,

after the printing of the lectures, that Mr. Badcock, a dissenting preacher, was their main author. The professor was nevertheless made a prebendary of Gloucester, took the degree of D.D., and obtained a college living in Suffolk. Retiring to his benefice, Dr. White now set up a printing press, and gave to the world 'Egyptiana,' on the antiquities of Egypt, and other works, and he died aged 68, 1814. JOHN CANTON, born at Stroud, in Gloucestershire, 1718, was early initiated in mathematics, but soon after engaged in the business of his father as a broadcloth weaver. He, however, eluded the vigilance of his father, who forbade him to study by candlelight; and at last constructed, by the help of a common knife alone, a stone dial, which, besides the hours of the day, showed the sun's rising, and his place in the ecliptic, with other particulars. The boy's ingenuity procured the encouragement of the father, who placed on the front of his house the favourite dial. This was admired by the curious, and Canton was invited to the undisturbed use of some valuable libraries. Martin's grammar, and a pair of globes, then first seen, raised his genius to noble exertions. He was invited to London by Dr. Miles, and engaged himself with Mr. Watkins, at an academy in Spital-square. Here he pursued his studies, and succeeded Watkins in his school. In 1745, the discovery of the Leyden phial in electricity attracted his attention. In 1750 he was elected a member of the Royal Society for his method of making artificial magnets; and he was also honoured with a degree by the university of Aberdeen. He was the first person in England who, on July 20, 1752, ascertained the truth of Dr. Franklin's hypothesis of the similarity of lightning and electricity, by attracting fire from the clouds; and this recommended him strongly to the notice of the American philosopher. His discoveries in philosophy continued to be important, and his opinions were communicated

to the Royal Society in various papers, on the shooting of stars, the electrical properties of the tourmalin, the variation of the needle, the transit of Venus in 1761, the compressibility of water, the making of phosphorus, the fixing of electrical conductors on buildings, the luminousness of the sea, &c. He died 1772, in his 54th year. BENEDICT ARNOUD, an American, born in New England, and brought up as a surgeon. He quitted his profession for the sea; and afterwards embraced with enthusiasm the republican cause against the mother country, and took the command of a company of volunteers at Newhaven. His good conduct raised him to higher offices; and he was selected to make an attack, through pathless wilds, upon Canada. In his attempt to take Quebec by surprise, he received a wound in his leg; and upon the failure of his plans, he withdrew the remains of his forces to Crown Point. He was afterwards employed on Lake Champlain; but though attached to the American cause, either dissatisfaction, or the fear of finding himself on the vanquished side, induced him to open a negotiation with sir Henry Clinton, and, as a proof of his sincerity, to deliver up, into the hands of the English, West Point, of which he had the command. In the attempt poor André was sacrificed, and Arnold, with difficulty, escaped on board a British ship of war. Here he was treated with respect, and on the unfortunate conclusion of the war, was rewarded with a pension. He was afterwards in Nova Scotia, and in the West Indies, where he was taken by the French, from whom he escaped. He returned to England, and died in London, 1801. ANTHONY BENEZET, a native of Philadelphia in America, who, after engaging in a mercantile line, devoted himself to the education of youth, and to philanthropic labours of every description. In this spirit, he wrote a 'Caution to Great Britain and her Colonies,' 1767, arising from his notion of the ill-condi-

tion of the English slaves in the West Indies. His decease occurring at Philadelphia, 1784, several hundred negroes attended his funeral; and an American officer, who had been engaged in the continental war, returning from the ceremony, exclaimed, that 'he had rather be Anthony Benezet in that coffin than George Washington with all his glory.' SIR JOHN BARNARD, an upright magistrate and statesman. He was born at Reading, where his father, a quaker, was a wine-merchant. At the age of nineteen he relinquished the quakers for the established church, and became first known in an examination in the House of Lords on a wine bill, against which the merchants objected. The spirited manner in which he expressed himself on the occasion gained him popularity. He became candidate for the city of London, and was elected in 1722; and he served the city in six succeeding parliaments. In 1727 he was appointed alderman of Dowgate ward, and in 1738 was lord mayor. His conduct in parliament was ever guided by a strong attachment to his country; and in his opposition to Walpole, especially on the excise act, his language was firm, manly, and patriotic. This virtuous magistrate died, aged 79, 1766. The general character of sir John may be collected in the respect and esteem of his fellow citizens on his resignation of his civic gown 1758. He was complimented with all those expressions of admiration which are due to integrity; and his public and private life was equally made the subject of panegyric. He had been knighted in 1732 by George II, and in memorial of his merits, his fellow-citizens erected his statue in the Exchange. STEPHEN MARTYN LEAKE, son of captain Martyn, rose in the Herald's college to the office of Garter. His work on English coins, called '*Nummi Britannici Historia*,' was twice edited, and is valuable. In 1750 he published the '*Life of Admiral Sir John Leake*,' who had bestowed his estates upon

him, as being the son of lady Leake's sister; but his chief work is on '*The Statutes of the Order of the Garter*.' He died 1773. JOHN LEAKE, founder of the Westminster lying-in hospital, was a physician of reputation. He wrote various tracts on '*Female Diseases*,' and died 1792. THOMAS ASHTON, educated at Eton and King's college, Cambridge, became rector of Aldingham in Lancashire, and of St. Botolph in London. He was also fellow of Eton, and preacher at Lincoln's inn. He published some very excellent Sermons on various occasions, besides controversial pamphlets against Jones, a methodist. He died 1775, in his 59th year. WILLIAM BENWELL, born at Caversham, Oxfordshire, in 1765, passed from Reading school, where his abilities were directed by the classic taste of his brother-in-law, Dr. Valpy, to Trinity college, Oxford. In the university the same ardent application continued to mark his progress; and his Latin poem obtained, in 1785, the chancellor's prize. The subject was the '*Plundering of Rome by Alaric*,' and it was treated with all the energy of description, and the majestic dignity of the Mantuan bard. Two years after, he obtained another prize for an English essay, '*On what Arts the Moderns have excelled the Ancients*,' in which he displayed deep research, in a style chaste and elegant. The same year he took holy orders, and in 1790 was elected fellow of his college, where he gained the respect of the society as an active tutor. In 1794, he obtained the living of Hale Magna, which he soon resigned for Chilton in Suffolk. In June 1796, he married the eldest daughter of J. Loveday, esq., of Caversham, and eleven weeks after this amiable character was borne to his grave. He resided at Milton, Wilts; and during a fever in the village, he exerted himself in affording consolation to the poor sufferers, and unhappily caught the infection, which, after ten days, proved fatal, 6th September, 1796. ARNAULD BERQUIN, a celebrated

French writer, born at Bordeaux. His first work was 'Idylles,' which possess sweetness, elegance, and pathos, and he afterwards wrote his romances; but his most popular work is his 'Ami des Enfants.' This interesting work, which conveys instruction to the youthful mind, and leads it by an agreeable narrative, clothed in spirited dialogue, to the admiration and the love of virtuous actions, has been frequently edited and translated into the various languages of Europe. M. Berquin died at Paris 1791, aged 42. EXUPERE BERTIN, born in France, was for some time physician to the Hospodar of Wallachia. He was subsequently assistant anatomist of the academy of Paris, and published a very valuable work on 'Osteology,' which the great John Hunter regarded as containing most extensive knowledge of the important subject. Bertin died 1781, aged 69. ANTOINE BERTIN, a French officer and poet, born in the Isle of Bourbon, 1752. At the age of nine he came to France, and was educated in the college of Plessis. He went in 1791 to St. Domingo, to marry a beautiful creole, whom he had known and loved at Paris; but on the eve of his nuptials he was seized with a fever, and died seventeen days after, at the end of June, 1790, aged 38. The French attribute to him the beauties and the faults of Propertius; and very justly, since he seems to have possessed a brilliant imagination, while he was too often regardless of the language of decorum. MAURITIUS, COUNT DE BENTOWSKY, magnate of Hungary and Poland, was born 1741, in the Hungarian province of Nittria. He embraced early the profession of arms; and after serving in the imperial armies, he joined the confederation of the Polish nobles. He accepted a high command in the army, and distinguished himself against the Russians in various skirmishes, till several wounds disabled him, and he fell into the hands of the enemy. The triumph of the Russians was great, in

possessing the person of such an adversary; but instead of respecting his misfortunes, they insulted his fate; and loading him with irons, they confined him in a prison, where the dead carcasses of his companions in misery threatened a pestilential contagion. He escaped, but again was taken, and hurried away through the deserts of Siberia to Kamschatka, 1770. In this distant retreat he formed the design of escaping; and the daughter of Mr. Nilon, the governor of the place, consented to share his fortunes, and to assist him in his flight. He succeeded in his attempt, made himself master of Kamschatka by force, and, accompanied by eighty-six faithful followers and nine women, among whom was his fair protector, he sailed on the 11th of May, 1771, from the harbour, and passing by the island of Formosa and the coast of China, reached, 17th of September, the port of Macao, from whence he departed for Europe in a French vessel. He no sooner landed in France, than he was encouraged by the French court to form a settlement at Madagascar; and eagerly embracing the proposal, he, after a residence of scarcely seven months in Europe, set sail for Africa. Here, however, he had to contend with the envy and malice of favourites, courtiers, and governors, who thwarted his views, and opposed his career of glory. The vexations he thus endured, induced him to throw off all allegiance to the French monarchy, and to declare himself an independent sovereign; a course, which, though hazardous, was approved by the main body of Europeans on the island. On the 11th of October he left his rising settlement for Europe, that he might form reciprocal alliances with the more polished nations of the north; but though he offered his friendship and services successively to France, Germany, and England, and claimed their support as the independent sovereign of Madagascar, his offers were disregarded, and he embarked again for Africa, the 14th

of April, 1784, from London, accompanied by his family, and a number of settlers. On his return to Madagascar, the governor of the isle of France sent a small force to oppose him. Benyowsky met his invaders with his usual bravery; but his adherents were few and timid, and the hero, abandoned by the thirty natives that were with him, and assisted only by two Europeans, found himself overpowered, and a ball having struck him on the right breast, the fortune of the day was decided. He fell behind the parapet of his little fortress; but his inhuman enemies, dragging him out by the hair, saw him expire in a few minutes after, May 23, 1786. HENRY BAKER, born in Fleet-street, London, was for some time engaged in a bookseller's shop, but left it for philosophical pursuits. His chief employment was to correct the stammering of grown-up persons, and to teach the deaf and dumb to speak; and he acquired an ample fortune by this benevolent profession. He was an active member of the Royal and Antiquarian societies, to whose memoirs he contributed sensible communications. He wrote poetry in the younger part of his life, and maintained throughout a character respectable for urbanity of manners, and a conciliating deportment. He died in the Strand, 1774, in his seventy-first year. Mr. Baker's microscopical experiments were very valuable, and have been published. He was the first who introduced into England the large Alpine strawberry from Turin, and the true rhubarb, *rheum palmatum*, sent over to him by Dr. Mounsey, the physician of the empress of Russia. He married the youngest daughter of the well-known Daniel Defoe. SAMUEL ARNOLD, an eminent musical composer, educated under Gates and Nares. His 'Cure of Saul,' and his 'Prodigal Son,' obtained him great celebrity; so that, in 1778, he was honoured with the degree of Mus. D. by the university of Oxford. After leaving Covent Garden, where he first appeared,

1760, he became the proprietor of the fashionable Marylebone gardens; and, in 1783, he succeeded Dr. Nares at the chapel royal, as organist. He was also organist of Westminster abbey, in which his remains are deposited. He died 1802, aged 63. His opera of the 'Maid of the Mill' is still popular; but his most valuable productions are contained in four volumes of services and anthems, in score. ROBERT HOLMES, a native of Hampshire, educated at Winchester-school, and New College, Oxford. In the beginning of the French revolution he went to Paris, to examine the manuscripts and versions of the Scriptures in the public libraries of France. His services to sacred literature were honourably rewarded, and he was made successively canon of Salisbury, and of Christchurch, and then dean of Winchester, which last preferment he enjoyed not quite two years. He died at Oxford 1805, aged 56. He published, besides other works, his Bampton Lectures in 1782, 'Alfred,' an ode, with six sonnets, 1778—an ode for the duke of Portland's installation, 1793, and a Latin letter to the bishop of Durham, respecting his collation of the Septuagint. He in 1790 succeeded Thomas Warton as poetry professor at Oxford. Of his collation of the Septuagint MSS. 5 vols. in folio have appeared. JOHN BAYNES, born at Middleham, Yorkshire, was educated at Richmond school, from whence he passed to Trinity college Cambridge. At the age of twenty he obtained the medals for the best exercises on mathematical and classical subjects. He entered at Gray's inn; and espousing, with all the eagerness of a young man, the politics of the times, he stood forth a vehement champion of reform at York in 1779, and was one of the leading persons in the insane attempt to spread 'the spirit of political regeneration,' as it was called, from France over England. The London Courant, among other papers, owed

its fame for some time to his exertions; and he has been considered author of the archæological epistle to dean Milles. He was attacked by a fever, brought on by his turbulent spirit; and after three days' illness he expired 1787, aged 29. CLEMENT DE L'AYERDY, a native of Paris, minister and comptroller of the finances under Louis XV., was at one time the favourite of the people. Though he introduced the reform of abuses, his endeavour proved abortive in the midst of a luxurious court; and in 1764, the measures which he was forced to recommend proved so unpopular, that he solicited and obtained his dismissal. He retired to his country seat, where the revolution found him engaged in agricultural pursuits, and regardless of the politics and the prejudices of party. The recollection of his services, however, was too powerful to suffer him to end his days in privacy; and he was suspected, and consequently condemned and guillotined, 1794, aged 74. He was author of the Code Penal, The King's Sovereignty over Bretagne, and other political works. JOHANN COUNT BERNSTORFF, an able statesman, born at Hanover. After travelling over Europe, he settled in Denmark, and became the favourite of Christian VI. He was employed in various embassies, and became prime minister of the kingdom. In this office he applied himself to the happiness of his adopted country; her commerce was enlarged, her manufactures encouraged, and every beneficent plan adopted for the prosperity of the state. A society for agriculture and economy was established, and another for the improvement of the Danish language, and of the fine arts; and a learned body was formed, whose object was to examine into the history, &c. of the East, of which the travels of Niebuhr were a most interesting specimen. Bernstorff accompanied his master to England in 1768; but in 1770, he fell under the royal displeasure, and retired on a pension to Hamburg,

where he died 1772. ANDREW COUNT BERNSTORFF, nephew to the preceding, was born at Gartow in Lunenburg, 1735, and after studying at Leipsic and Gottingen, and travelling through Europe, settled in Denmark, and succeeded to the honours of his uncle. As a negotiator with Russia, he conducted himself with great ability; and by persuading Catherine that it ill became her dignity to retain a small patrimony which made her dependant on the German empire, he obtained the cession of Sleswick, and part of Holstein, and thus strengthened Denmark by the accession of a territory whose population amounted to above 100,000 souls. In the American war he recommended an armed neutrality, and thus protected commerce against the belligerent powers. He retired in 1780 from the helm of the state, but was again recalled four years after by the prince of Denmark; and he had the sagacity to forbear engaging in the war of 1788 between Russia and Sweden. He died 1797, respectfully followed to the grave by the Danes; who admired his patriotism and virtues, and who, to commemorate his benevolence and popularity, struck medals in his honour. THOMAS DIMSDALE, an English physician, born as Thoydon-garnon, Essex. His family were quakers, and his grandfather was the companion of Penn in America. Young Dimsdale settled at Hertford, and in 1745 engaged as surgeon in the duke of Northumberland's army in the Scotch campaign. On the taking of Carlisle he returned to Hertford, and in 1761 began to practise as a physician. His celebrity as an inoculator in the small-pox recommended him to the empress Catherine, at whose request he visited Russia in 1768. His successful inoculation of the empress and her son, was rewarded with the rank of baron of the empire, &c. besides a pension of 500*l.* per annum, and a present of 12,000*l.* In 1781, he was again in Russia to inoculate the grand duke's two sons; and he was

elected member of parliament for Hertford in 1780, and again 1784. He died 1800. He was author of tracts on inoculation, with an account of his journey to Russia.—SAMUEL BISHOP, an English poet, born in London 1731, and educated at Merchant Tailors' school, and St. John's college, Oxford. He afterwards was head master of the former, and obtained the livings of St. Martin Outwich, London, and Ditton, Surrey. He died 1795. He wrote numerous poems on light subjects, in a pleasing and elegant style.—CHARLES BISSET, born at St. Andrew's, was author of an essay on fortifications and of some medical tracts. He served in Flanders as an engineer, till the peace of 1748, and three years after settled at Skelton in Yorkshire, after taking the degree of M. D. at St. Andrew's. He died at Knayton near Thirsk, May, 1791, aged 75. His two works 'On Fortification,' and 'On the Scurvy,' though on curiously different subjects, are very valuable productions. ROBERT BISSET, a miscellaneous author, master of an academy in Sloane-street, Chelsea. He wrote a life of Edmund Burke, a much esteemed composition, as likewise a history of the reign of George III. He was a native of Scotland, and was educated at Edinburgh, where he took his degree of LL.D. after which he settled in London. He died aged 46, through distress occasioned by his embarrassed affairs, 1805. WILLIAM NEWCOMBE, born at Abingdon, Berkshire, where his father was vicar, completed his studies at Pembroke college, Oxford, and took holy orders. Through the friendship of Mr. Fox, his pupil, he obtained preferment, and was at length made bishop of Ossory, then of Waterford, and ultimately, through the patronage of earl Fitzwilliam, archbishop of Armagh. Dr. Newcombe's biblical knowledge was very profound; and he gave to the world new translations of 'Ezekiel,' and of the twelve minor prophets. He died, aged 70,

1799. JAMES TOWNLEY, born in London, was educated at Merchant Tailors', and St. John's college, Oxford, and became morning preacher at Lincoln's-inn, then lecturer of St. Dunstan's in the East, and at length obtained the living of St. Benet, Gracechurch-street, and the head-mastership of Merchant Tailors' school. He cultivated the friendship of Garrick and Hogarth, and aided the latter in his 'Analysis of Beauty.' The farce of 'High Life below Stairs,' written by him, was produced on the Drury-lane stage, 1759, and was an attempt to expose the tricks played by the then servants of the great upon their masters. Its satire was very justly appreciated, and never more so than by the opposition made to its representation by the livery servants of Edinburgh; the implied acknowledgment of those gentlemen, 'qui capit, ille facit,' undoubtedly adding to the popularity and longevity of the piece. Mr. Townley died, aged 63, 1778. JOSEPH TOWNSEND, born in Wiltshire, became a fellow of Caius college, Cambridge, and then studied medicine under Dr. Cullen at Edinburgh. Being of a highly enthusiastic disposition, he suddenly adopted hyper-calvinistic notions, obtained holy orders, and was presented to the living of Pewsey, Wilts. But he for some time after receiving this piece of preferment resided at Bath, as chaplain to the eccentric countess of Huntingdon, under whose roof he published his 'Accuracy of the Mosaic History.' He also wrote a 'Guide to Health,' and other works, and died at Pewsey, 1816. WILLIAM CLEAVER (1742—1815), son of a clergyman and schoolmaster at Twyford, Bucks, obtained a demyship at Magdalen college, Oxford, and afterwards became a fellow of Brazen-nose. Having for his pupil the marquis of Buckingham, he obtained a stall at Westminster through the interest of the Grenville family; and in the next year, 1785, he was elected principal of Brazen-nose college. In 1787 he

was made bishop of Chester, whence he passed successively to Bangor and to St. Asaph, still retaining his university headship. He wrote an able treatise on the 'Greek Metres,' edited the celebrated 'Oxford Homer,' and wrote some pertinent directions to the clergy concerning that difficult matter—'The Choice of Books.' He died, aged 73, 1815. His brother, *Euseby Cleaver*, became, through the same interest as his own, first bishop of Ferns, and then archbishop of Dublin. HENRY DUNDAS (1740—1811), son of the lord-advocate of Scotland, studied law at Edinburgh, and became a member of the Faculty of Advocates, 1763. He was solicitor-general 1773, lord-advocate 1775, and joint keeper of the signet for Scotland 1777; but he more immediately began his career as a statesman 1782, when he was made treasurer of the navy, and a privy councillor. Though Lord North's coalition displaced him, he was soon restored to his office under Mr. Pitt; and he continued ever that minister's first adherent. On the bill being passed to regulate India affairs, he was made president of the Board of Control, home secretary in 1791, and secretary at war 1794. He retired when Mr. Pitt resigned, previously to the peace of Amiens; but came again into office with him as first lord of the Admiralty, and was created viscount Melville. In 1805 he was impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors in reference to his former post of treasurer of the navy; but not being implicated with the malversation of Mr. Trotter, his deputy, he was acquitted. He, however, now retired from public life, and died, aged 71, 1811. Sir JOHN DINELY, an eccentric character, one of the Poor Knights of Windsor, whom his father's ill conduct is supposed to have rendered imbecile. On January 17, 1741, a dismal tragedy occurred at Bristol. There were two brothers who had become enemies on account of the entail of property. The elder was sir John Dinely Goodyerc, baronet, the younger, Samuel

Dinely Goodyere, a captain in the navy, commanding the Ruby ship of war. The two brothers had long ceased to meet; but a common friend, at the request of the younger, brought them together. They dined at his house: they exchanged professions of brotherly love. When they separated, the baronet had to pass alone over College-green at Bristol, and was there encountered by six sailors, with the captain of the Ruby at their head. He was seized, gagged, carried into a boat, and thence to the ship—where he was strangled. The vengeance of the law was speedy. The vessel was detained upon suspicion; the crime was fully proved; and the inhuman brother and two of his confederates were hanged within two months. Sir John Dinely of Windsor was the son of the murderer. King George III. had benevolently consented, as he was perfectly harmless, to his being made a Poor Knight, which gave him an income of 80*l.* a year, apartments in the Castle, and sundry perquisites. He used to dress in the court costume of George II., and to wear *pattens*; and with an umbrella under one arm, and a military cloak on the other, he was for years to be seen, either in the streets of Windsor town, or on the terrace of the Castle. Should any lady come in his way unattended, he would approach her, and politely offer her a printed paper, wherein he proposed marriage, giving the party a fortnight's time to come to a decision; and the document closed with an assurance that the advantage to the lady would be a happy life, and to himself the recovery of his 'immense estates in Worcestershire, where he had a vast mansion with marble halls and superb gates.' Sir John was one morning, in 1803, missing from his due attendance upon the service of St. George's chapel. The door of his apartments was in consequence broken open. His sitting-room was strewn with printing-types—for he used to print his own bills; and in the chamber beyond was stretched the poor knight

upon a pallet-bed. He was dying. He had studied physic, and had prescribed for himself not injudiciously. Every attention was paid him; he lingered a few days, and then expired, aged about 80.

SOVEREIGNS—(to 1789). **TURKEY.** 1757, Mustafa III; 1774, Ahmed IV.; 1789, Selim III. **POPES.** 1758, Clement XIII.; 1769, Clement XIV.; 1775, Pius VI. **FRANCE.** 1715, Louis XV.; 1774, Louis XVI. **RUSSIA.** 1741, Elizabeth; 1762, Peter III.; 1762, Catherine II. **SWEDEN.** 1751, Adolphus Frederick; 1771, Gustavus III. **PORTUGAL.** 1750, Jossé I.; 1777, Maria Isabel I. and Dom Pedro III.; 1789, Dom João, regent. **SPAIN.** 1759, Charles III.; 1788, Charles IV. **GERMANY.** 1745, Maria Theresa and Francis I.

of Lorraine; 1765, Joseph II. **POLAND.** 1793, Augustus II.; 1764, Stanislaus II. Poniatowski; 1773, the kingdom of Poland divided between Russia, Prussia, and Germany. **PRUSSIA.** 1740, Frederick II. the Great; 1786, Frederick William II. **DENMARK AND NORWAY.** 1746, Frederick V.; 1766, Christiern VII.; 1784, Frederick, prince-royal, regent. **NETHERLANDS.** 1711, William IV.; 1766, William V. **TWO SICILIES.** 1759, Ferdinand IV. **SARDINIA.** 1790, Charles Emanuel III.; 1773, Charles Emmanuel IV. **PERSIA.** 1753, Kharim Khan Zend; 1779, Interregnum; 1789, Luft Ali Khan. **KABUL.** 1747, Ahmed I. Durani; 1773, Timur Khan. **DELHI.** 1753, Alemgir II.; 1761, Shah Alem. **CHINA.** 1733, Kien Lung.

EIGHTEENTH CENTURY OF THE CHURCH.—1700 to 1800.

The Council of Trent had so effectually given perpetuity to the errors of the old church, by causing her to bind herself down to a specific declaration of faith, to which all her clergy were compelled to subscribe without reserve, that nothing worthy of record occurred in her annals, beyond her efforts to recover her ancient power and privileges, for nearly a century and a half. In England, the cleansed branch laboured, at the opening of the eighteenth century, under the heaven which had been introduced into it by the continental evangelical league, under the auspices of its head, king William III.; and if the whig and tory contest of that period killed the good queen Anne, that political strife was only the natural consequence of the conflict between high and low church principles, which had rendered her last days miserable. We have shown that the Anglo-catholic church had reached her highest point of purity and solidity in the preceding century; but the work of the sterling divines of that age was now doomed to be levelled to the ground, between overt attacks and secret under-

minings. The Geneva tenets had already made great inroads, not for a century to be repaired, upon the catholicity of the English branch; and the Bangorian heresy may be said to have heaped up the measure of its ruin. It was in 1717 that Hoadly, bishop of Bangor, advocated publicly an hostility to all establishments assuming the title of Church; and when the prelate, notwithstanding the exposure of his principles by the high-church party, had been rewarded by the whig ministry with successive translations to Hereford, Salisbury, and Winchester, even the Calvinistic portion of churchmen united with their opponents to lament the fact. Nay those of the Geneva school were most loud in declaring 'that the Church was indeed vacated by the spirit of holiness.' Instantly thereupon arose the sect of Wesley, 1729, simultaneously with Hutchinsonianism; both aiming at spiritualizing the establishment, though by different methods. Of Hutchinsonianism we have spoken in its proper place; and here it need only be said that, if it erred in religious belief, it was mainly on the point of good works, which it

made so completely of none effect, as to startle and sink the spirits of the labourer in the vineyard. John Wesley, after receiving ordination in the English church, endeavoured to construct a church of his own, mostly on Arminian principles; and his attempt was followed by that of Whitefield, 1739, who had been similarly ordained to erect another on an hyper-calvinistic base. Wesley, it is true, maintained some of the soundest opinions on baptismal regeneration, &c. though they have been of late years relinquished by his followers, the methodists: Whitefield stuck to predestination and unconditional election, and coincided with the Hutchinsonians in utterly putting out of the question human endeavours. The Hutchinsonians, however, coalesced with the high-church party; and thus in a moment were seen four distinct parties in the same establishment, viz.—the high-church, the Dutch Calvinists, or Evangelical league supporters, the hyper-Calvinists, and the Methodists. The two latter soon separated from communion, leaving the Evangelical or low-church and the high-church or catholicity party to contend alone. There was, however, one distinctive tenet which, on occasion, united and bound together to assault the catholicity portion, the total ultra-protestant community of Wesleyans, Whitefieldites, and low-church; and this was, that the whole Gospel is comprised in the principles of our corruption by nature, and our being saved by grace. These two fundamental truths of natural defection and justification by faith, cast utterly out of consideration good works, the sacraments as a means of grace, self-discipline (including self-denial, without the resolute practice of which there can be no foundation for even the moral virtues, and certainly nothing permanently religious), repentance, and a holy life; and everything like THE CHURCH, (i. e. that code of ordinances drawn up by Christ Himself and given to his apostles, to insure the due worship of God; the

principles of which code no successors of the apostles in the ministry, whether bishops, priests, or other orders of clergy, can or may abrogate), as the rule of Christians, was unacknowledged. To prize either of these, was to set up the Church, a holy life, repentance, self-discipline, the sacraments, good works, *in place of Christ*, and to detract from the value of His most glorious and adorable Atonement; and out of this narrow system sprang two evils greatly to be deprecated by pious men—first, a want of due reverence in communicating the truths of religion, and next the use of a shocking familiarity in addressing the Saviour, as if He were a mere mortal, to be loved with earthly affection, rather than God, to be adored with every demonstration of holy awe.

This unity of sentiment produced yet closer alliances between clerical members of the low-church, and those without the church's pale. The former did not, like Wesley and Whitefield, relinquish the bread of the establishment; but they sedulously employed themselves in breaking down its pale and fences, admitting those out of communion to their pulpits, and, in many instances, themselves figuring in theirs. This was but a symbol of genuine Christian philanthropy. On the other hand, the high-church party were highly blameable in that they began carefully to avoid preaching from their pulpits on the doctrines in dispute; partly to avoid controversy, and partly out of mere indolence or apathy. Thus baptismal regeneration, the apostolical succession, the absolving power of the priesthood, the Eucharistic sacrifice, the Real Presence, the Communion of Saints, the authority of the Church, came to be subjects never entered upon even in the sermons of those who privately maintained their faith in them; and though the Prayer-book, in its various offices and its Articles, enjoins a belief in them all, as required by the Holy Scriptures and the Church,

the main body of churchmen, from the circumstance of never hearing them mentioned in the pulpit, came soon to forget or not to know that such essential doctrines existed.

But what was still more to be deprecated, many of the clergy, in performing the respective offices of the church, omitted portions of the services, in spite of the directions contained in the rubric, so as to make the Prayer-book and the whole tone of the sacred ceremonies agree with their lax sentiments. Thus some would wholly omit the use of the Athanasian Creed, and any lesson taken out of the apocryphal books; again, in the Eucharistic office, the absolution would be qualified in some way, and in the Baptismal, all the parts declaring the rite a *regenerative* one, would be left out. As priestly absolution had, since the time of Hoadly, been treated as a delusion, and denounced by schismatics as a mere ecclesiastical assumption, some ordained priests were known to preach against it, and even prelates would occasionally qualify that great gift, when ordaining to the priest's office, by using an hypotheticalal for the categorical form given in the ritual. The Anglo-catholic church has drawn up her forms of absolution in the most cautious and unpresuming manner, in the ordinary portions of her liturgy; but even such wording was often thought too powerful, and was still further modified. Benediction, after a pulpit discourse, in the same affected fear on the part of the preacher to declare himself the accredited ambassador of Christ, was prefaced by a *may*. Add to all these omissions and innovations, the gradual abrogation of outward forms. The altar had long since (from the time of king William III.) ceased to be regarded as that portion of the sacred edifice especially sanctified by an ever-present Deity. Now even the pious George Herbert, who is considered by low churchmen themselves a pattern in all he said and did, worshipped prostrate at the altar, as

the eternal seat of the Real Presence.

'When at his induction (says his biographer, Izaak Walton), he was shut into Bemerton church, being left there alone to toll the bell, *as the law requires him*, (a law no longer, however, observed,) he staid so much longer than an ordinary time, before he returned to those friends that staid expecting him at the church door, that Mr. Woodnot looked in at the church window, and saw him lie prostrate on the ground before the altar; at which time and place, as he after told Mr. Woodnot, he set some rules to himself, for the future manage of his life, and then and there (in Christ's more especial presence) made a vow to labour to keep them.' This was in the preceding (the seventeenth) century of the Church. Then did no one pass the altar without reverently bowing; lights were perpetually burning thereon, during divine service, as a beautiful, and the purest physical symbol, of the ever-shining light of the Faith; the cross was elevated high above the altar and the lights, as the triumphant emblem of the victory achieved for us over sin and death; the white surplice was retained by the priest on quitting the altar for the pulpit, in token of the purity of his office, and as an acknowledgment that the sermon he pronounced was part of the duty of 'the priest of the altar;' and no prayer beyond the Lord's Prayer was heard or allowed in the pulpit. The sermon concluded with the Blessing in its *categorical* form. Men in that day kept the fasts; they confided to the clergy their secret thoughts and doings, consulted with them as their pastors, requested their prayers, quitted the way of error at their solicitation, and received that forgiveness in Christ's name, and through his merits, which the priest has power to bestow, in virtue of his ordination gift, on those who signify their repentance, and purpose to amend. But to talk of the absolving power, to fast, to give God's blessing freely, to show veneration for the Presence

at the altar, to wear the surplice in the pulpit, to place lights upon and the cross above the altar, were now considered as so many popish enormities, and as a visible attempt to renounce protestantism for the ancient supererogatory system of Rome,—a plain sighing after the flesh-pots of Egypt. In a word, when the eighteenth century was near its close, the pure flame of Christianity burned low and dim in 'the candlestick' of the English church; and vital religion must therein in another half century expire, her candlestick must be removed, should no spirit of restoration be seen to arise. The bark of the tree had already been stripped, and the life of the tree was fast ebbing, and must sooner or later depart. The *smoke* of the incense within was no longer visible to the eye, and the *fire* of the incense within must therefore be on the eve of extinction.

But we will quit this painful subject for the present, to speak of other occurrences. The early part of the eighteenth century was distinguished by the first attempt of protestant nations to bring over the Hindus, and other eastern heathens, to the Christian faith; and English, Danes, and Dutch, combined to effect so benign a work. The issue was the leaving of the task, on account of its unexpected difficulties, in the hands of the English; and by the indefatigable exertions of missionaries sent out by the London Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, a branch of the Anglo-catholic church was at length firmly planted in Hindustan. It was at the opening of this century also, that the English clergy first assumed to themselves honorary titles; though certain writers had occasionally awarded such to them at an earlier period. Every clergyman was now called reverend; archbishops were styled most reverend fathers in God; bishops, right reverend fathers in God; deans were called very reverend; archdeacons, venerable. Towards the close of the century, both divines and

moralists, without regard to doctrinal opinions, were engaged in resisting, in their pulpits and by their writings, the infidel doctrines which overspread the kingdom from revolutionary France. In Germany, the 'Rationalists,' under Eichhorn and Paulus, attempted the subversion of all Scripture authority, and succeeded in establishing a system of *Neology* (so called from its novelty), which, though it did not go the whole length of deism, denied the divine origin of the sacred writings. It declared the Old Testament to be based on historical foundations, and the writers to have been, not impostors, but men of great moral purity; and it held that the latter, being deluded by the excited state of their imaginations, had regarded and recorded things as miraculous, which were only natural occurrences. The received origin of the Jewish nation they put on a par with the mode in which the Chinese and Japanese, the Greeks and the Romans, accounted for the rise of their respective states; and, in this spirit they admitted our Lord's existence, but blasphemously explained away his miracles. It was this heresy which led king Frederick William III. of Prussia to force an union between the Lutheran and Calvinistic portions of his subjects; thus constructing his 'Evangelical Church,' which now somewhat boastingly styles itself 'mother of all the churches in the West.'

In 1773, the church of Rome lost, at least for a time, her most important prop, by the suppression of the Order of Loyola; and the subsequent convulsion of the French revolution, of which that suppression was the proximate cause—the match of the mine,—overthrew the Gallican branch, and, as will be shown in our concluding volume, after attempting to spread atheism and anarchy throughout Europe, destroyed the papal power itself, and converted the ancient seat of the hierarchy into a godless republic.

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